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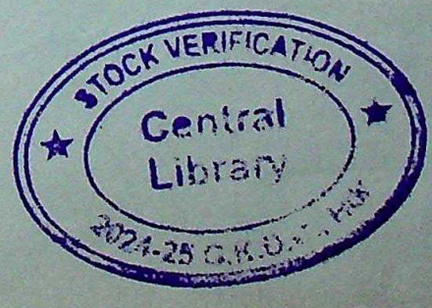

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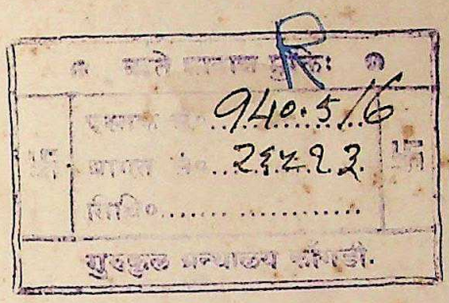

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MUIR'S
HISTORICAL ATLAS
MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN

SEVENTH EDITION

CHECKED 1973

EDITED BY
GEORGE GOODALL, M.A.
CARTOGRAPHIC EDITOR

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THE LONDON GEOGRAPHICAL INSTITUTE, 32 FLEET STREET, LONDON, E.C.4
PHILIP, SON & NEPHEW, LTD., LIVERPOOL, 1
1947

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PREFACE TO THE SEVENTH EDITION

THIS atlas remains and will always remain substantially the work of the late Mr. Ramsay Muir. While he never claimed that the atlas was based upon original research at more than a few points, it was his constant aim throughout to select and adapt for teaching purposes the best results of modern historical scholarship. The present editor, one of his former students, was responsible for the detailed editorial work of the Sixth Edition under the inspiring direction of the late Mr. Ramsay Muir and the late Mr. George Philip.

In the present edition opportunity has been taken to correct a number of small mistakes that had inadvertently crept in.

June 1947.

GEORGE GOODALL.

First Edition	1911
Second Edition	1914
Third Edition	1917
Fourth Edition, Enlarged	1920
Fifth Edition	1923
Sixth Edition, Revised and Greatly Enlarged,	1927
Seventh Edition	1947

PRINTED IN GREAT BRITAIN

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PREFACE TO THE SIXTH EDITION

THIS volume is a new, revised, and greatly enlarged edition of an Atlas which has been widely used in all the English-speaking countries ever since its original publication in 1911. But the changes which have been introduced are so drastic, and the additions are so great, that it is rather a new book than a new edition of an old book.

A change of format from demy octavo to quarto has doubled the size of the page, and has rendered possible the introduction of a number of large-scale double-page maps in which a degree of detail is given that was out of the question in the old form. The general plan of the Atlas has also been completely changed, the maps being grouped in chronological order instead of in four separate sections. Many of the old plates have been reconstructed and re-arranged, and place has thus been found for a great deal of new matter. Every map that survives from the old edition has been thoroughly revised, and many hundreds of new names have been introduced. In addition to all this, the number of plates has been increased by 50 per cent. as compared with the original edition. As a result of these improvements, the Editors and Publishers believe that the Atlas can challenge comparison with any historical atlas issued at a price within the reach of students.

The Introduction, also, has been completely rewritten and greatly extended. The first four sections (dealing with the Shaping of Europe, the British Isles, the Expansion of Europe, and the British Empire) are by Mr. Ramsay Muir, author of *A Short History of the British Commonwealth*, which is designed as a companion to this work. The fifth section (which deals with the development of the United States) is by Professor R. M. McElroy, Harmsworth Professor of American History in the University of Oxford, who has also supervised the series of maps (now greatly extended) on American History. Finally, great pains have been taken to make the Index as complete and useful as possible. It includes some thirteen thousand references.

The features which distinguished this Atlas from its predecessors even in the earlier editions have been carefully preserved and strengthened.

In the first place, an emphasis unusual in historical atlases has been laid upon the physical basis of history by the introduction, for every important area, of at least one physically coloured map; on all maps which are not merely diagrammatic carefully engraved mountain hachures, printed in brown to avoid confusion, are included; and such barriers to intercourse as deserts and marshes are indicated by special symbols. But in the present edition the Editors have endeavoured to go beyond this. In **Plate 2–3**, for example, which endeavours to set forth the background to history, not only deserts and mountains, but the more easily cultivable soils which encouraged settlement, the steppe-areas which bred nomads, and the deciduous and coniferous forest-areas, have all been indicated. In the early world-maps (for the period of exploration) prevalent winds and currents have also been indicated. Thus an attempt has been made, on a scale hitherto unknown in historical atlases, to bring out clearly the physical factors which have governed the movements of peoples and the limits of States.

In the second place, the Atlas is not limited to political history. Even in the earlier editions economic history was illustrated not only by special economic maps, but by the indication of trade-routes, wherever appropriate. In the present issue this has been greatly extended; and attention may be directed to the map illustrating mediæval commerce, with its novel and useful indication of the times occupied in transit from various centres by the prevailing methods of communication; or to the set of comparative maps showing the growth of population, the extension of railways, and the development of various natural resources in Europe and America at two different dates. Further illustrations of the resolve not to limit history to politics are provided by the anthropological map (by Professor H. J. Fleure and Mr. E. G. Bowen) with which the volume opens, the linguistic map at the end, and the cultural map on **Plate 27**.

In the third place, this Atlas has always been distinguished by the fullness with which it has treated the expansion of European influence or control throughout the non-European world. This feature has been greatly strengthened in the present edition, more especially in the treatment of American history, in which the guidance of Professor McElroy has been of the highest value. The Editors have striven to give to the history of the non-European world, as it has influenced or been influenced by Europe, a fuller and more adequate treatment than has hitherto been afforded in general historical atlases.

LONDON, *May* 1927.

RAMSAY MUIR.
GEORGE PHILIP.

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INTRODUCTION

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References to the coloured plates are given thus : **Plate 5** ; *references such as* **Inset 5a** *refer to smaller maps on the same plate. References to the black-and-white maps in the text are given thus :* **Fig. V.**

The purpose of this Atlas is to illustrate (so far as this can be done by means of maps) the history of Western or European civilisation since the Roman Empire, and the expansion of its influence or domination over the rest of the world. It will be convenient to divide our description of the maps into five sections, the first dealing with the shaping of Europe, the second with the British lands, the third with the expansion of Europe over the non-European world, the fourth with the British Empire, and the fifth with the development of the United States of America.

SECTION I

THE SHAPING OF EUROPE

RACIAL TYPES OF EUROPE

By Professor H. J. Fleure

Plate 1 is to be interpreted very broadly, as showing, diagrammatically and with obvious exaggeration here and there, the main gradations of head form and colourings among European peoples. Small groups of hyperdolichocephals occur in remote spots in the Iberian Peninsula, Sardinia, France, Wales, Ireland, Norway, and the Carpathian region ; their locations are purposely exaggerated on the map. They seem to represent survivals of early types (Aurignacian, Solutrian, etc.) of modern man and they are usually quite dark-haired and dark-eyed. The greater part of the Iberian Peninsula and Southern France, together with South Italy and the Italian islands, and apparently Western Crete, show long-heads, less extreme than the above in head form and colour but mainly dark. Their type is usually called the Mediterranean Race Type and has probably been bred locally from various early long-headed stocks reaching this region from Africa as the Ice Age passed away. This type has kinship with that of North Africa.

The stock around the Baltic Sea is generally fair with a moderately long head, and similar people abound in North-west Germany and the Netherlands, while they mingle with darker and broader-headed elements in Belgium, Northern France, and South Germany. They are the Nordic Race, and have kinship with prehistoric peoples of the South Russian steppe as well as, probably, with very long-headed types of the earliest phase of occupation of North Europe. The attempt is made to show the British Isles as homes of long-heads, including survivors of the very early types, mostly intermediate in character between Nordic and Mediterranean stocks, fairer on the east coasts and darker westwards. There have been historic and prehistoric drifts from North-west and South-west Europe, but probably a good deal of the fundamental stock has bred itself from early post-glacial arrivals. The terms Nordic and Mediterranean should thus be applied with reserve in the British Isles.

The greater part of France, Switzerland, the Po and Danube lands and their mountain frames, the Balkan Peninsula and the Russian plain are shown peopled by broad-heads of moderate to dark colouring, but there is need of further differential marking to distinguish very diverse types and some current names have been added, though they mark very various grades of diversity. The Alpines, strictly, are the fairly dark broad-heads of Central France, the Alps, parts of the Carpathian lands, and the Vistula basin ; their head form is well rounded and often low and the general build is rather short and thickset. The people of Central Russia (Great Russians) may be looked upon as in part an eastward spread of colonists of this type, with influence of Nordic, Arctic, and Asiatic-steppe elements all playing some part in modifying the range of character.

In some parts of the Prussian plain and Silesia, and in the lands north-east of the Vistula basin, this type has apparently altered through intermixture with Nordics and we find the broad head of the former along with the fair colouring of the latter. Some of these tall, rather fair broad-heads are characterised by strong brows and marked orbital sinuses, and seem to be the type occurring in graves of the dawn of the Bronze Age with what archæologists call " Beaker " pottery. It would, however, be a mistake to link this type with the whole of the region marked with broad yellow horizontal bands ; it is a type found here and there in the British Isles, the Germanic Lands, and Central Europe. The combination of fair colouring and breadth of head is also well known in North Italy, and some have ascribed the fair colouring to the influence of Lombardic conquerors.

The round-headed Alpine type is very characteristic in the Balkan Peninsula, but in the north taller men, fairly dark, with very short, broad, high heads are a feature, as they are and have long been also in Anatolia. Their type is clearly indicated on Hittite monuments and the large nose is well known. The name Dinaric is inserted on the map for this variant : it also occurs in South Austria, the Alps, and South Germany. In Galicia and the Ukraine there occur tall, rather dark, short-headed broad-heads who are neither in a full sense the Dinaric variant nor the ordinary Alpine type.

In South Russia and to the north of the Caspian Sea a proportion of the population shows the characteristics of peoples of the modern Asiatic steppe ; they are broad-heads with dark colouring, rather lank hair, and dry skins. They are often strongly built but not always tall. It would be an exaggeration to call them Mongolian. More minute local investigation would probably reveal traces of the long-heads who in prehistoric times seem to have been the chief inhabitants of the steppe.

The dark Arctic broad-heads, showing marked admixture with more or less fair types in the coniferous forest regions of North Russia and Scandinavia are an obvious feature of Europe's racial geography. The date of their advent in North Europe is a matter of much debate.

Here and there along the coasts of the Mediterranean and Western Europe occur groups of very dark broad-heads with strong jaws and of stalwart build. They seem not to be merely extreme forms or variants of Alpine and Mediterranean types but rather represent some early maritime spread, possibly connected with the development of inter-

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course and civilisation that seems to have characterised many of the coastlands concerned in the early Bronze Age. Skulls, apparently of this type, are known from graves of appropriate age in Sicily, Sardinia, the Balearics and France.

It is only in a few places that data are available which show more than small samples or mere averages. The map is thus of a highly tentative character and the necessities of demonstration have led to inevitable compromises that make it impossible to give more than a very general idea in this cartographic fashion at the present stage of our knowledge.

THE REALMS OF CIVILISATION

Plate 2–3 is intended to illustrate the background of modern history. It shows (*a*) the physical conditions which have influenced the movements of peoples and the rise and fall of civilisations ; and (*b*) the centres of developed civilisation in the Old World as they were at the end of the second century of the Christian era.

In pale colours, the main characteristics of the terrain upon which the world's civilisations have grown up, and the barriers which separated them, are exhibited ; the rich and easily tilled alluvial soil which encouraged agriculture and civilisation ; the deserts and mountains which severed people from people ; the forests, marshes, and steppes, mostly roadless and untilled, among which dwelt the more primitive peoples who continually menaced the settled civilisations. Note especially the wide region of the steppes, which link Europe with Asia, and across which, century after century, the nomads have ridden, driving before them scattered tribes to the demolition of empires.

Against this background, in stronger colours, four distinct civilisations of the first rank are shown, stretching in a belt across the temperate and sub-tropical zones from the Pacific to the Atlantic : China, India, Persia, and the Roman Empire. Two of these (India and China) have been primarily "riverine" civilisations, which grew up mainly on the rich alluvial soil of great river-basins, and have therefore tended to be stationary. A third (the Roman Empire) was a "pelagic" civilisation, linking diverse peoples by the easy communication of an inland sea with highly indented coasts ; it tended, therefore, to be mobile and progressive. The fourth (Persia), lacking both of these features and stimuli, has been the least significant of the four. Wholly distinct in their origins, these civilisations were separated from one another by belts of desert or almost impassable mountains. They knew next to nothing of one another, and influenced one another scarcely at all, though a thin stream of trade linked them by land, and there was some sea-traffic between India and the Roman Empire across the Arabian Ocean. **China** in A.D. 200 was at the end of her first great period of consolidated development, under the Han Dynasty, and was entering upon a long era of confusion. The main features of her civilisation were fixed ; she had attained her modern limits, and, beyond them, exercised a vague suzerainty over the nomadic peoples of Eastern Turkestan. Constantly threatened by the Mongol tribes to the north, she had already erected, to ward them off, the Great Wall (c. 200 B.C.), the symbol of the exclusive and self-centred policy she was henceforth to pursue ; though it was not until the eighteenth century that her policy of exclusion became rigid. The Chinese civilisation was a great one, but it was doomed to become stagnant because it was exclusive. **India** had been brought into contact with Greece by the invasion of Alexander, and had for a moment nearly attained unity under Asoka—more nearly than at any time before the British conquest. This stage is shown in **Inset 2***a* : the much later, and less inclusive empire of the Guptas is shown in **Inset 2***b*. In 200 most of her area was divided between the native Andhra (Dravidian) dynasty (S. and E.) and an invading dynasty of nomads, the Kushans, who had come from Central Asia through the passes of the north-west, like so many earlier and later invaders. But these empires were about to break down, and the most confused era in Indian history was soon to begin (c. 230). Through the Kushan Empire, which stretched into Central Asia, India had some contact with the West, but it was very slight. Her Buddhist faith had already begun to spread over China, but it did not bring about any close contact. In India itself Buddhism was fighting a losing battle against Brahmanism, which, being a non-proselytising religion based upon a rigid system of caste, condemned India to division and also to exclusion from contact with the outer world except through foreign conquerors. India, like China, therefore, lived her life apart. **Persia**, after passing under Greek influences owing to the conquests of Alexander the Great and his successors, had fallen (c. 150 B.C.) under the rule of the Parthians, a nomad people akin to those of Central Asia. The Parthian Empire had carried on a long struggle with the Romans in Mesopotamia, and constantly threatened the eastern borders of the Roman Empire. But it was a weak power, always menaced by fresh nomadic invasions, and it was soon (226) to be replaced by a native Persian dynasty (the Sassanids), under whom the contact of Persia with the outer world became less. Finally, the **Roman Empire** was just past the height of its strength and splendour : the great Emperor Marcus Aurelius died in A.D. 180, and after him decline began ; in 250 the barbarians succeeded for the first time in breaking through the frontiers. The Empire had laid the foundations of Western civilisation, which rests upon Greek thought and Roman law ; while Christianity, the religion of Western civilisation, was rapidly spreading over its area. The Empire had been an expanding and civilising power. But its expansion had come to an end with the conquest of Dacia (Transylvania) and Mesopotamia by Trajan, at the beginning of the second century. Trajan's successor Hadrian had fixed the limits of conquest, building walls in Britain and Germany to keep out the outer barbarians. The British wall is shown in **Plate 5***b* ; the German wall (the *limes*) is shown in **Fig. I**. Rome, like China, India, Persia, had ceased to progress.

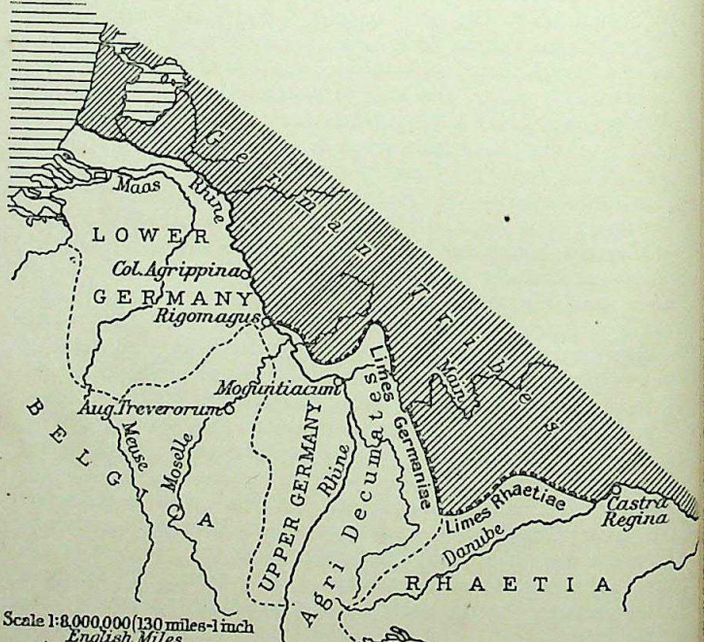

FIG. I.—THE ROMAN LIMES IN GERMANY

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All these four empires were alike threatened by barbarian tribes beyond their borders, eager to plunder their riches. Along the whole European frontier of the Roman Empire lay the Germanic tribes; behind them the vague and loosely organised tribes of the Slavs, who had not yet emerged into the light of history; behind these again the nomadic tribes, mainly of Mongol stock, who wandered over the whole vast area from Mongolia to the steppes of Southern Europe. It was these Mongol peoples, less capable of civilisation than the Germans, who mainly threatened the other empires; and it was their pressure (perhaps caused by the desiccation of the Central Asian plateau) which ultimately drove the German tribes over the guarded frontiers of the weakening Roman Empire. This simultaneous pressure from the Mongol nomads links

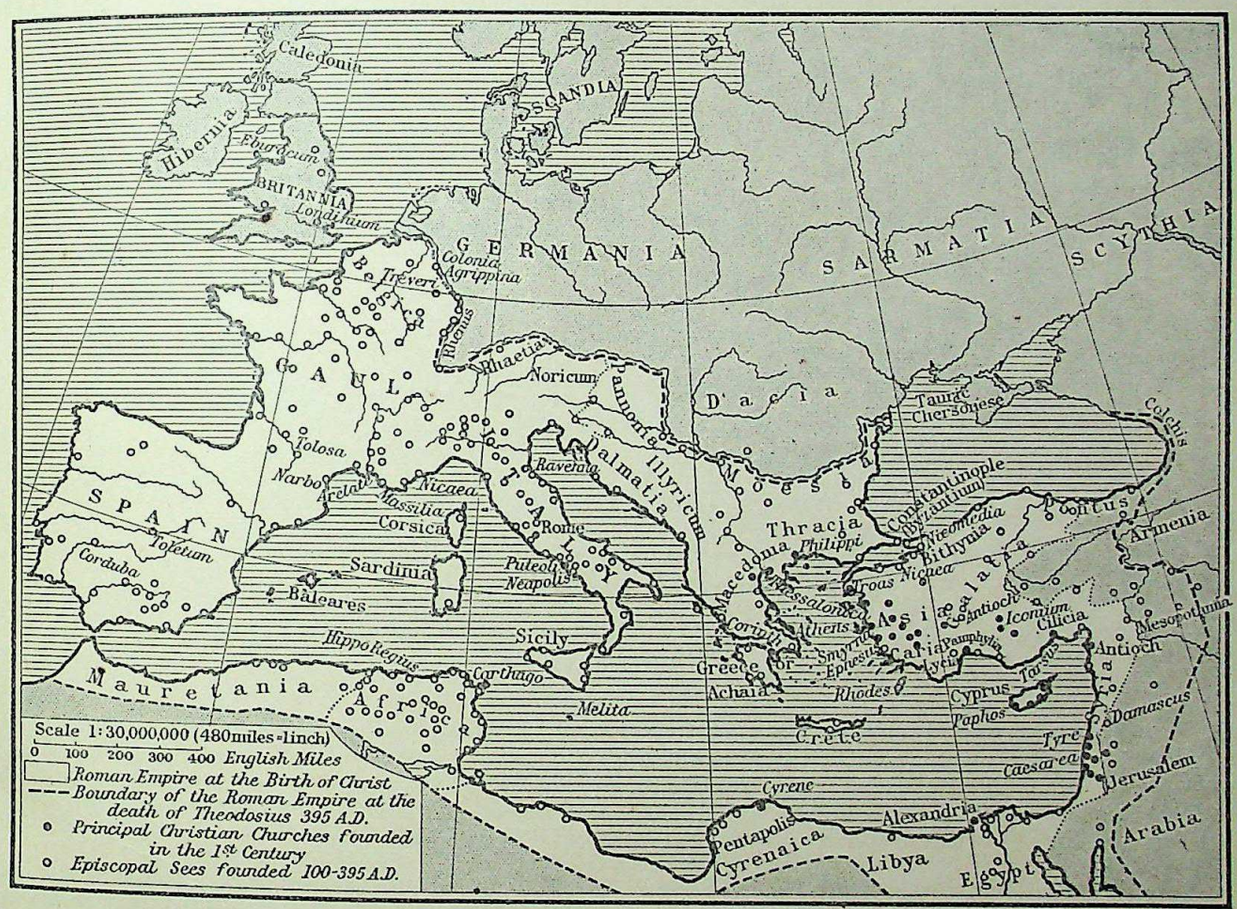

FIG. II.—THE PROGRESS OF CHRISTIANITY

following 250. The frontiers have shrunk, both on the north (Dacia) and on the east (Mesopotamia). The old provinces of the earlier Empire have been replaced by an elaborate hierarchy of prefectures and dioceses (*see* **Inset 4***a*). Without losing its unity, the Empire has been divided for practical convenience into two halves, western and eastern, Latin and Greek. But the main centre of government has been removed from Rome, with its traditions of senatorial power, to Constantinople (330), whose magnificent strategic position is henceforth one of the dominating facts of history. It is so placed as to protect Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt from invaders coming from the north. Those of the Germans who crossed the Danube therefore passed on through Illyricum to Italy and the west; and during the German invasions the eastern half of the Empire was comparatively undisturbed. The physical features brought out in this map make two points clear. (i) The line of the Carpathians and the Elbe would have afforded the shortest and most defensible frontier for the Empire, but this frontier had never been reached. (ii) The weakest spots on the northern frontier, and therefore the chief seats of Roman armies, were (*a*) the Rhine (soon to be attacked by Franks, Allemanni and Suevians, Burgundians and Vandals); (*b*) the Lower Danube, especially exposed to the Ostrogoths and Visigoths; (*c*) the low eastern coast of Britain and northern shore of Gaul, exposed to the piratical raids of the North Sea tribes (*see* **Plate 10**).

Owing to the decadence of the Empire, men from all the frontier tribes were being increasingly enlisted in the armies of the Empire, and made familiar with its wealth and institutions, which they profoundly admired. Moreover,

up the history of all the four empires, for all suffered from it.

It is only possible to illustrate in detail one of the Roman provinces—Britain (**Plate 5**) (*see below*, p. 28). But here is shown the material structure of Roman organisation: the great roads which bound the country together, and overcame its physical obstacles; the cities; the camps of permanent garrisons so placed as to guard the untamed regions; and the elaborate fortification of a frontier (**Inset 5***b*).

THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN 395

Plate 4 shows the Roman Empire in its later phase, as it was reorganised by Diocletian (286–305) and Constantine (306–37) after the expulsion of the barbarians in the years

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as the Empire had become Christian since Constantine, Christianity had spread to many of the frontier tribes, though mostly in the heretical form of Arianism. The German barbarians were therefore ready to assimilate and not merely to destroy. For the expansion of Christianity during the first four centuries of the Christian era, *see* **Fig. II.**

THE BARBARIAN INCURSIONS

Plates 6 and 7, together with (for Italy) **Plate 8** and (for Britain) **Plates 10 and 11,** illustrate the main stages in the barbarian irruptions, and the distribution of the new elements which were to give rise, on the foundations laid by Rome, to the nations of Europe.

6a. Driven forward by the Huns (invaders of Mongol stock who had poured into Europe by the steppes), the Visigoths crossed the Danube into the Balkan Peninsula (376), and thence through Illyricum into Italy (400), where they sacked Rome (410). Thence, with a commission from the Emperor, they passed into Southern Gaul and Spain (412). Meanwhile the Allemanni (from whom the French name for Germany is taken) had planted themselves on both sides of the Upper Rhine (405); the Burgundians, crossing the Rhine, had settled in South-eastern Gaul (413), whence they were never dislodged; and the Vandals and Suevi, passing through Gaul, had overrun Spain (409), where the Visigoths found them. The Suevi were penned into North-western Spain; the Vandals were driven over the Straits of Gibraltar into the province of Africa (429), where they founded an empire that controlled the Western Mediterranean, sacked Rome (455), and by their ferocity made their name a synonym for barbarism. In the north of Gaul the numerous tribes of the Salian Franks occupied the valleys of the Scheldt and Meuse; while their cousins, the Ripuarian Franks, occupied the Middle Rhine and Main Valleys. By 450 only the Valley of the Seine remained Roman. But for a time a terrible raid of the Huns in Gaul and Italy threatened destruction equally to the Romans and the Germans, until their king, Attila, was checked at Chalons (451). The extent of Attila's ravages is shown in **Fig. III.** By that date the whole of Western Europe had been reduced to a welter of anarchy. The sudden collapse of the Roman power in the western provinces necessitated the withdrawal of the Roman armies from Britain (410), whose southern and eastern coasts soon (c. 450) began to be settled by pagan Saxons and Angles (*see* **Plates 10 and 11**). As yet no barbarian people had settled in Italy, but the feeble Emperor of the West, who nominally ruled from Ravenna, was dependent for his existence upon a barbarian army. In A.D. 476 Odoacer, general of this army, suppressed the Western Empire, and founded a kingdom of Italy, owning a nominal allegiance to the Emperor at Constantinople. Thus the western half of the Empire, except the Seine Valley, had passed into the hands of the barbarians by 476.

6b. Meanwhile the Ostrogoths had followed the Visigoths over the Danube, and after being settled for a time in Illyricum, marched under their king, Theodoric, into Italy, where they overthrew Odoacer (489) and established a powerful and well-governed though short-lived empire, which was in the early years of the sixth century the most formidable power of the West. Its chief rival was the growing power of the Franks. Their divided tribes were united under Clovis (481–511), who subdued the Roman district in Northern Gaul (486), reduced the Allemanni to submission (495–6), and conquered the great province of Aquitania from the Visigoths (507). Thus by about 520 five principal barbarian States divided the western half of the Roman Empire: the Ostrogoths, the Franks, the Visigoths, the Vandals, and the Burgundians.

Most of the German tribes had now passed into the Empire, and had left the whole vast area east of the Elbe and Saale empty. Into this region, quietly and unmarked, Slavonic tribes filtered from the forests and marshes of Russia. They were unorganised and unwarlike; and

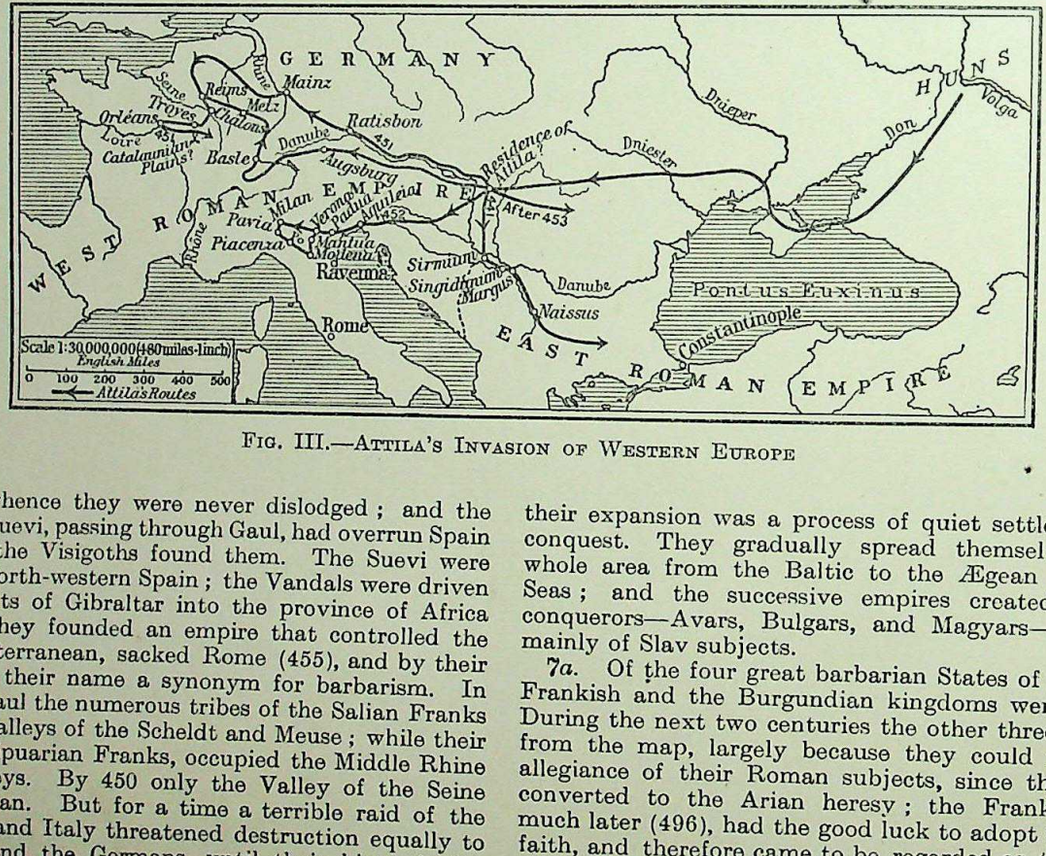

FIG. III.—ATTILA'S INVASION OF WESTERN EUROPE

their expansion was a process of quiet settlement, not of conquest. They gradually spread themselves over the whole area from the Baltic to the Ægean and Adriatic Seas; and the successive empires created by Mongol conquerors—Avars, Bulgars, and Magyars—all consisted mainly of Slav subjects.

7a. Of the four great barbarian States of 520, only the Frankish and the Burgundian kingdoms were to survive. During the next two centuries the other three disappeared from the map, largely because they could not hold the allegiance of their Roman subjects, since they had been converted to the Arian heresy; the Franks, converted much later (496), had the good luck to adopt the Orthodox faith, and therefore came to be regarded as the protectors of the Catholic Church. But the immediate overthrow of the Ostrogoths and the Vandals was due to a remarkable revival of the Eastern Empire under the great lawgiver Justinian (527–65). Drawing upon the unimpaired resources of the East, his generals destroyed the Vandal kingdom in Africa (533–4) and the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy (535–52), and these countries again became part of the Empire. But the Empire was not strong enough to maintain its conquests. The Lombards, the last of the German tribes to break into the Empire, overran Italy in 568. They were never able to conquer it entirely (*see* the map of Italy in 600, **Plate 8**): the representative of the Empire long maintained a hold upon Ravenna, and the

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extreme south retained its loyalty to the Empire for five centuries to come (*see* **Plate 28***a*) ; while in the centre the Pope was able to establish his authority over an extensive region (*see* **Plate 8***b*) which remained under the political control of the Papacy until the unification of Italy in the nineteenth century (**Plate 39***c*). But Italy was reduced to confusion. The triple division of the country into the kingdom proper in the north, under Teutonic influence, the Papal States in the centre, and in the south an area where Greeks, Lombards, and later Saracens conflicted, was to be lasting. Almost at the same time as the Lombard invasion of Italy the Mongol tribe of the Bulgars crossed the Danube (679) and brought the Slavs of that region under their rule, thus founding the State of Bulgaria. This was the first permanent new State to be established in the eastern half of the Empire.

7*b*. In addition to the attacks of these tribes, the Eastern Empire had to wage constant wars against the Persians, who at various times overran Egypt, Syria, and Asia Minor. In the seventh century it was for the first time threatened also from the south, where the Arabs, united by the preaching of Mohammed (d. 632), simultaneously attacked the East Roman and the Persian Empires, subjugated the latter completely, and tore from the former the great provinces of Syria (632–9) and Egypt (640). The Eastern Empire was now limited to Asia Minor and the southern part of the Balkan Peninsula, linked together by Constantinople.

THE CONQUESTS OF ISLAM

The amazing triumphs of the conquering faith of Islam brought a new force into the world, and formed a turning-point in history. It is illustrated by **Plate 9**, which shows the stages in this marvellous advance. Before his death in 632 Mohammed had united the tribes of Arabia. In the next dozen years his successors rapidly won the neighbouring lands (Syria, Mesopotamia, and N.E. Africa), which were largely peopled by men of kindred Semitic stock. Then, after an interval of internal dissension, they won over the Berbers of Northern Africa ; by 704 they had mastered the Roman province of Africa (Tunis and Algeria) ; by 708 they had mastered Morocco and reached the Atlantic. Thence they later spread southwards across the Sahara, and won all the tribes of the Sudan for Islam. Striking northwards, they shattered the Visigothic kingdom of Spain (711–13), which they were to occupy for five centuries, and pressed on into Southern France, where the disorganisation of the Frankish Empire under the later Merovingian kings seemed to give them an easy prey. Meanwhile, in the East, they had extended their domains to the Taurus and the Caucasus ; they had captured Cyprus and Crete ; they had pushed beyond the Persian Empire into Central Asia, reached the Oxus, and were in contact with the Turco-Mongol tribes of that region ; while, eastwards, they had won the fierce tribes of Afghanistan, and reached the Indus Valley. These amazing conquests, achieved within a century, were as permanent as they were rapid. To this day, all these regions, torn from more ancient and settled civilisations, remain loyal to the Moslem faith ; and although the vast empire of Islam soon split up into a number of separate realms (*see* the **Inset 9***b*), it retained a real unity of sentiment. Christendom, divided and disorganised, found itself faced by a militant and conquering power : the Mediterranean formed a ditch between them, crossed by the Moslems in Spain and the islands, and by Christendom in the possession of Asia Minor by the Eastern Empire. This conflict was to be waged fiercely, and on equal terms, for nearly a thousand years ; it was not until the seventeenth century that the Moslem power began to break, and not until the nineteenth that Europe and Christendom definitely got the upper hand. The critical period was in the seventh and eighth centuries, when the élan of the Mohammedan advance was at its height. Then Christendom was saved by two things. In the East the Byzantine Empire, a sort of dam for the protection of Europe, held against the flood, the critical moment being the successful resistance of Constantinople to a six years' siege, 672–9. In the West, the Frankish Empire pulled itself together in time to stem the flood : the victory of Charles Martel at Poitiers (732) drove the Mohammedan power out of France, and fixed the limit of its advance in the West. But although the Moslem advance in the West was stayed in 732, the greatest days of Mohammedan civilisation were still to come. It reached its height under Harun-al-Raschid, contemporary of Charlemagne, whose magnificent city of Bagdad is shown in the **Inset 9***c*. The main centres of Moslem power under the Abbasids—Iraq, Syria, and Mesopotamia—are more fully shown in **Inset 9***a* ; in the West, Moslem Spain was for some centuries the most highly civilised land in Europe, and the immediate source of the earliest revival of learning.

THE FRANKISH EMPIRE : CHARLEMAGNE

With the fall of the Visigothic Empire in Spain (711), the Frankish Empire (**Plate 12–13**) was left as the sole survivor of the barbarian States erected on the ruins of the Western Empire, apart from the disorganised power of the Lombards in Italy. Before the coming of the Saracens the Franks had united under their rule all the Germanic territories in France and Western Germany (**Inset 12***b*). But they were weakened by frequent partitions and wars among the descendants of Clovis, and by a growing division between the Western Franks of Neustria, who were on Roman territory and were now speaking a dialect of Latin, and the Eastern Franks of Austrasia (later Franconia), who remained German, on German soil. It was from Austrasia that a new dynasty, the Carolingian, arose to displace the Merovingian descendants of Clovis (752), and Charles Martel, the victor of Poitiers, was of this line. The Frankish Empire became the bulwark of civilisation in the West. Its rulers sent missionaries, as well as armies, to extend the limits of Christendom among the pagans of the remaining German tribes, and among the Slavs. They were called in by the Popes to help them against the Lombards (755). Their empire reached its apogee under Charlemagne (768–814) ; and as the Eastern Empire was at this date far reduced in power, and was engaged in bitter strife on religious questions with Rome, it seemed natural to revive in Charlemagne's honour the title of Roman Emperor (800), since he was the one effective guardian of civilisation and of Christianity in the West.

The double **Plate 12–13** shows the three great powers into which the Western World was now divided, at a moment when the history of Europe seemed to be making a new start. The **Mohammedan** power was now at the height of its splendour : Harun-al-Raschid, the hero of the "Arabian Nights," was ruling in Bagdad (786–809) (*see* **Plate 9***b*) ; and although this mighty power was already beginning to split (*see* the map of Islamic Disintegration, **9***b*), it appeared to dwarf completely both the Eastern Empire and the new Western Empire. The **Eastern Empire** still held Asia Minor, but owing to the steady penetration of the Slavs and Bulgars, it was left in Europe with little more than the eastern and northern shores of the Ægean Sea, a few ports on the Adriatic, and a few poor and divided segments of Italy, the remnants of the conquests of Justinian. Even the **Empire of Charlemagne** was far from consolidated, and it was threatened not only by the Saracens in Spain, but by the Slav flood on the east, and by the Avar Empire (Slavs under Mongol masters) in the south-east. Charlemagne's task (apart from the work of internal organisation, which cannot be shown on maps) was twofold : (*a*) to

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bring all the German lands under one rule—this he did by the conquest and conversion of the pagan Saxons (775–85), the effective subjugation of the semi-independent Bavarians (788), and the conquest of the Lombard kingdom in Italy (774); (*b*) to extend the frontiers of Christendom—this he did by winning the Spanish March from the Saracens

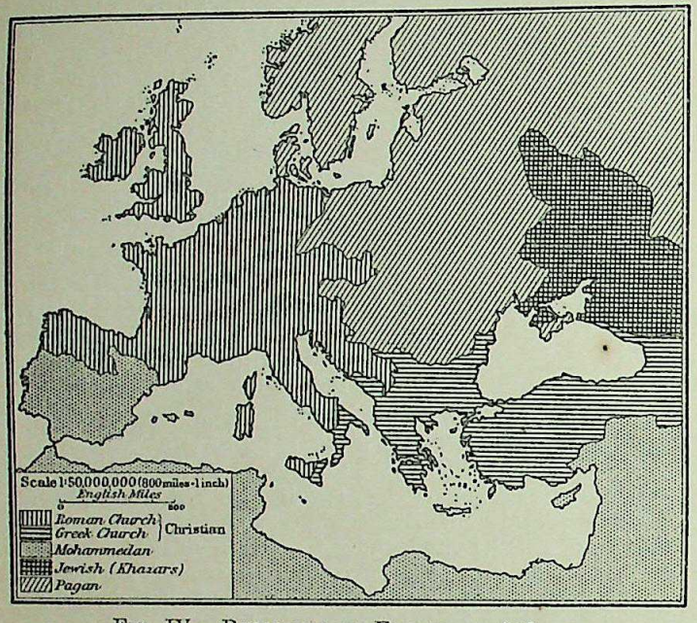

FIG. IV.—RELIGIONS OF EUROPE, C. 900 A.D.

(785–812), thus beginning the reconquest of Spain; by beating back the Avars (796–9); and by setting up a series of border provinces or Marches against the Slavs, thus beginning the slow process of German advance eastwards. In effect, however, the limit of German territory at the end of his reign was still the line of the Elbe and Saale.

But Charlemagne's empire, though it was welcomed as marking the return of Roman peace, was inherently weak, and was soon followed by another period of confusion. His realm was partitioned and re-partitioned among his descendants, who constantly intrigued and fought one with another. The first of these partitions is shown in the **Inset 12***a*—the Partition of Verdun, 843, between Charlemagne's grandsons. The significance of this partition lies in the severance of the Latin-speaking western area, soon to become France, and the German-speaking eastern area, soon to be the kingdom of Germany: the first emergence of the distinction between two rival nations whose conflicts fill later history. Between them a long straggling domain was assigned, with the title of Emperor, to the eldest brother Lothar. It included the two capitals, Aix-la-Chapelle and Rome, and the whole of Burgundy, except the north-west part, which, under the name of the duchy of Burgundy, was henceforth always attached to the kingdom of France (cf. **Plate 16.**) The northern part of this realm, called after its ruler Lotharingia, is partly represented by modern Lorraine; and this middle kingdom represents the area over which France and Germany were to fight for a thousand years. But these dynastic arrangements meant little. In spite of them, natural forces were dictating the permanent lines of division between France and Germany. The partition of Mersen (870) which recognised this division, is also shown in **Inset 12***a*. By 888 the empire of Charlemagne had definitely broken up into four distinct kingdoms, which are shown in **Plate 14**—France, Germany, Burgundy, and Italy; and the division was to be lasting—even in the case of Burgundy it lasted for about three centuries.

EUROPE IN THE NINTH CENTURY

The miseries of disintegration were intensified by fierce attacks from without, which penetrated to the heart of the Empire: they are shown by the coloured lines on **Plate 14.** The Saracens conquered Sicily, and terrorised Southern Italy and Provence; the Magyars made incessant raids into Germany; the Northmen from Denmark and Norway (lands which had hitherto played no part in European history) raided all the western coast and fixed their fangs upon the British Isles (*see* **Plates 10 and 11***c*.) Eventually (911) a powerful band of them was settled by treaty in Northern France, in the region to which they gave the name of Normandy, where they assimilated and improved upon the civilisation of their new home, and in many respects became its leaders.

Similar bands, coming from Sweden and known as the Varangians, had earlier entered Russia by the Gulf of Finland (862), and by their vigour had given to the unorganised Slavonic tribes of the Dnieper basin an effective government, of which Novgorod (on Lake Ilmen) and the splendid city of Kief were the chief centres. This was the beginning of Russia as a nation. By the Dnieper the Varangians reached the Black Sea, fought with and served the Eastern Emperors at Constantinople, borrowed much from them, and were converted (with their subjects) to the East Roman form of Christianity (988). Thus Europe was divided between the Orthodox and the Catholic forms of Christianity. The Slavs also were divided; for while the Czechs of Bohemia (873) and the Poles (c. 970) adopted the Western or Latin form of Christianity, the Southern Slavs of the Balkan Peninsula (875) and the Bulgars (864), like the Russians, became attached to the Greek Church.

These missionary successes were a sign of renewed vigour in the Eastern Empire. This was, indeed, a great period in the history of that Empire. Under the Macedonian Dynasty (867–1054) the Bulgars and Slavs of the Balkan Peninsula were defeated (1018) and brought into vassaldom; the dominions of the Empire in Southern Italy were strengthened and reorganised; and Asia Minor, still the backbone of the Empire, was efficiently reorganised for military purposes in "Themes," which are shown in **Plate 14.** The Empire was helped by the temporary weakness of the Moslem power, divided between the main Caliphate of Bagdad, the Caliphate of Cordova (750), and the Fatimite Caliphate (909) in North-west Africa and later in Egypt (*see* **Plate 9***b*).

GERMANY IN THE TENTH CENTURY

Of the kingdoms which arose out of Charlemagne's Empire, that of Germany (**Plate 15**) was at first much the strongest. It was divided into five great duchies, which to some extent represented national or tribal distinctions—Franconia, Lotharingia, Swabia, Bavaria, and Saxony; and the conflicts between them were often acute. But when in 918 Henry Duke of Saxony was elected king he succeeded in imposing obedience upon his fellow-dukes and in taming the Magyars. His son, Otto the Great, was so much the greatest sovereign in Europe that he was able (951 and 962) to invade Italy and add that crown to his own; and in 962 the Pope crowned him Emperor. Thus began the "Holy Roman Empire of the German nation," which lasted until 1806, and gave to the King of Germany the primacy of Western Europe. But the direct rule of the Emperors never extended beyond Germany, Italy, and (later) Burgundy, and in the two latter realms it never amounted to much. The true Germany was still limited to the line of the Elbe and Saale, but a series of marks or margraviates, extending from the Baltic to the Adriatic, and shown on **Plate 15,** began the extension of German sovereignty eastwards; and from 950 the Slav kingdom of

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Bohemia was tributary to Germany, to which its fortunes were henceforward linked. The acquisition of the imperial crown was to be the ruin of Germany's strength, because it drew her kings away from their necessary work in Germany, and later brought them into violent conflict with the Papacy, soon to become, under the influence of a powerful religious revival, the real spiritual leader of Europe.

FRANCE IN THE ELEVENTH CENTURY

In France (**Plate 16**) the royal authority, which passed from the Carolingian line to the elected dynasty of the Capets in 987, was for a long time at a low ebb. During the recent confusion, and especially as a means of protection against the Northmen, the feudal order had been fully established; and a multitude of feudal princes exercised independent power in their own territories, obeying the king only when it suited their purposes. By 1032, the two sections, the Regnum Jurense and the Regnum Provinciæ, the authority of the kings was still more ineffective than that of the king in France. The crown of Burgundy was added to that of Germany in 1032.

ITALY IN THE ELEVENTH CENTURY

In Italy (**Plate 28***a*) confusion still reigned; the authority wielded by the Kings of Germany as Kings of Italy was negligible, and feudal principalities were all but independent, while the cities were beginning to assert their freedom. The Eastern Empire still held the extreme south until the middle of the eleventh century; the Lombard duchies of Spoleto and Benevento did not follow the obedience of the kingdom. In the first half of the eleventh century (from 1017) a number of adventurous knights from Normandy began to carve out States for themselves in South Italy; the Greeks were expelled by 1071; while between 1060 and 1101 the Normans also reconquered Sicily from the Saracens. By 1127 all these dominions had been

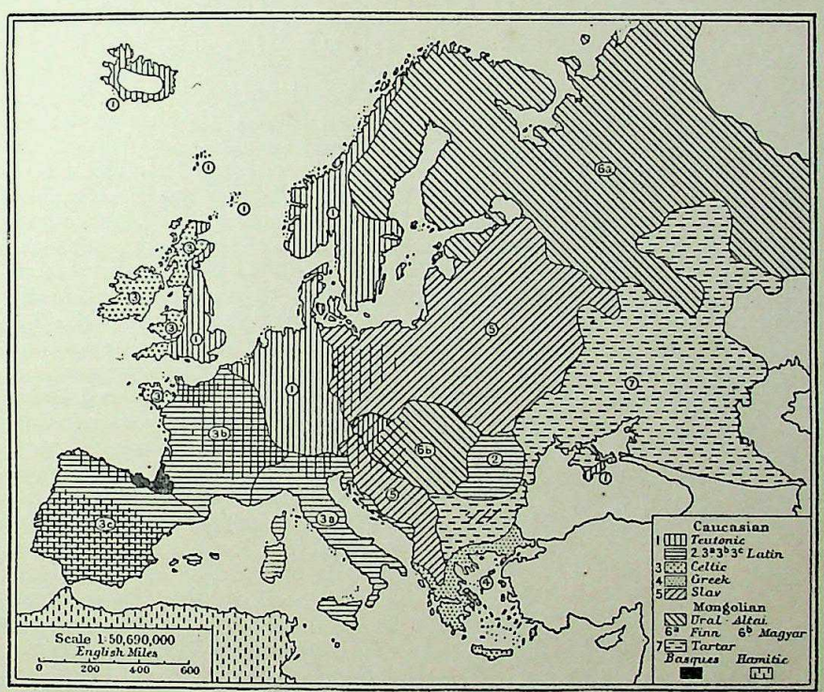

FIG. V.—THE RACES OF EUROPE, C. 1100 A.D.

date of the map, the feudal distribution of France had come to be pretty well defined. In effect, the royal power was inoperative south of the Loire, in the huge duchy of Aquitaine, which had had a more or less separate history ever since the Franks conquered it from the Visigoths. This region was not fully brought into the French kingdom until after the Albigensian crusade and the downfall of the Angevin Empire, in the thirteenth century. The principal feudal States, of which Normandy, Flanders, Anjou, Blois and Champagne, the Duchy of Burgundy, Aquitaine (Poitou) and Toulouse played the greatest part in history, are shown in **Plate 16**, also the narrow limits of the royal domain, i.e. the area effectively under royal control. This map illustrates French feudal geography throughout the early Middle Ages, down to the great revival of the Monarchy in the late twelfth and the thirteenth centuries. It is supplemented, for the twelfth century, by **Plate 22**, which shows the Angevin Empire at its height (1154–1189), but also illustrates the feudal distribution of France at that period. France was the hearth of the nascent mediæval civilisation, but the French monarchy as yet counted for nothing in comparison with the German monarchy. In the kingdom of Burgundy, now divided into united under a single rule. This was the origin of the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily, which was for a long time the best-governed part of Western Europe. Naples and Sicily survived as a separate State, and can be seen as such with unchanging boundaries in the whole series of maps, until the reunion of Italy in the nineteenth century. The Normans also threatened the Eastern Empire across the Adriatic; and they formed the strongest support of the Pope in his struggle with the Emperor during the investiture contest (1075–1122). Another pillar of the Church in Italy was the Countess Matilda, whose extensive lands are shown in **Plate 28***a*. After her death they were disputed by the Pope (to whom she had left them) and the Emperor. A relic of them long survived in the lands of the House of Este (Modena and Ferrara) (cf. **Plate 39***a*).

EUROPE AT THE END OF THE ELEVENTH CENTURY

The eleventh century was thus a period when Europe was achieving a large measure of settled order; and the characteristic institutions of the Middle Ages, the Holy Roman Empire, feudalism, the theocracy of the Popes, and the influence of the monasteries, were well established. **Plate**

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21 shows the outlines of this new order. Beyond the borders of Germany, the Scandinavian realms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden had now entered the comity of European civilisation, having been converted to Christianity respectively in 960, in 1000, and in 1008. In the first half of the eleventh century Norway and Denmark had been temporarily united with England in a powerful empire under Canute (**Plate 17**) which had won the respect of Europe; and although this union did not last long, the three kingdoms henceforth counted as civilised and Christian realms, no longer as the lurking-places of pirates. Poland and Hungary also had accepted the Roman form of Christianity, the former in c. 970 and the latter in 975. The spiritual power of papal Rome now extended, in Europe, far beyond the limits of the old Roman Empire; while the Greek form of Christianity had fully won all the Slav peoples of the Balkans, as well as the Russians. The extension of Christendom in the eleventh century is illustrated by **Fig. VI.**

But if Christianity was gaining in Europe, it was losing ground elsewhere. A new and formidable menace had arisen in the East. The Seljuk Turks, coming from Central

FIG. VI.—RELIGIONS OF EUROPE, C. 1100 A.D.

Asia beyond the Oxus, had overrun the Caliphate of Bagdad (from 1040), captured Bagdad itself (1055), and established their power over the greater part of Western Asia. In 1071 they defeated the army of the Eastern Empire at Manzikert in Armenia, and tore from it almost the whole of Asia Minor. That rich country, so long the main strength of the Eastern Empire, was so devastated that it never recovered, nor has it ever been regained for Christendom. In the same year (1071) the Turks captured Jerusalem from the Fatimites of Egypt, and made pilgrimage to the Holy Places more difficult. This double threat to Christendom was the immediate cause of the first Crusade, which set forth in 1095, and opened a new war between Christendom and Islam. The first Crusade was the first common enterprise of mediæval Europe. The routes followed by the various convergent armies are marked on **Plate 21.**

THE CRUSADES

The First Crusade achieved great success, mainly because the Mohammedan power in Asia Minor and Syria was now split up among a number of independent emirs, while there was sharp hostility between the Fatimite Caliphs of Cairo and the orthodox supporters of the Abbasid Caliphate in Syria, Asia Minor and Mesopotamia. After defeating the Turks at Dorylæum (1097) the crusading army advanced diagonally across Asia Minor to Antioch, which they captured (1098), and which became a principality under the Norman Bohemond; a separate expedition seized Edessa (1098) in a country mainly peopled by Christian Armenians, and this became a distinct county; the main army advanced southward along the Syrian coast and captured Jerusalem (1099). During the next thirty years the conquests were consolidated by constant fighting; while in the wake of the Crusaders the Eastern Emperors from Constantinople established their power over a belt of the coastlands of Asia Minor. About 1130, when the Latin power was at its height, its extent and organisation were as shown in **Plate 23***c*. (1) The Kingdom of Jerusalem (established as an hereditary kingdom in 1100) extended from Beirut to the Red Sea, and by means of the great fortresses of Kerak and Monreal controlled the caravan routes from that sea. It included four great baronies and twelve minor fiefs, and was engaged in constant war with its neighbours, especially in Egypt. (2) The County of Tripoli on the coast was a practically independent State under Raymond, Count of Toulouse, and his successors. (3) The Principality of Antioch, at first under Bohemond (1098), later (1104) under his nephew Tancred, was for a time the strongest of these States, but it was weakened by quarrels with the Eastern Empire, with the other Latin States, and with the Emirs of Aleppo. (4) The County of Edessa was the farthest outpost of Christendom in the East and was the first to fall.—In 1144 Edessa was taken by Nureddin, the founder of a new Moslem power, with its centre at Aleppo, which gradually unified Syria and Egypt. The fall of Edessa led to the Second Crusade, 1147 (**Plate 23***a*), which was a complete failure: by attacking the friendly Emir of Damascus it only strengthened the hands of Nureddin, who mastered Damascus in 1154. In 1164 a viceroy of Nureddin conquered Egypt, which the Kings of Jerusalem had repeatedly invaded. A nephew of the conqueror of Egypt, Saladin, made himself master of the Syrian lands of Nureddin as well as of Egypt, and preached a crusade against the Christians, which led in 1187 to the recapture of Jerusalem and the whole of the Latin territories except Tyre, Tripoli and Antioch. This brought about the Third Crusade (1189), the most important of the series after the first (**Plate 23***a*). It led to the conquest of Cyprus, which became a Christian kingdom, and regained some of the coast-towns (Acre, Jaffa, etc.) besides saving Tripoli and Antioch; but it failed to regain Jerusalem. Later attacks were equally unsuccessful: notably the Fifth, in which an attack by way of Damietta was attempted. In the Sixth Crusade, however (1228–9), the Emperor Frederick II succeeded by negotiations in regaining Jerusalem and strengthening the Christian hold on the coast: this result is shown in **Plate 23***c*. But, in spite of frequent expeditions, Jerusalem was finally lost in 1244. The Crusades of St. Louis of France (1248–54) and others which followed only delayed the inevitable end. The last ports to fall were Tripoli in 1289 and Acre in 1291.—Besides creating the small and struggling Latin States in Syria, the Crusades gave a great stimulus to the trade of the Italian cities, Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, and greatly widened the horizon of Europe. But they also led to sharp friction between the rude chivalry of the West and the rulers of Constantinople. In 1204 the greed of Venice, playing upon these feelings, turned the Fourth Crusade against Constantinople itself (**Plate 23***b*). A Latin emperor was set up in Constantinople, a kingdom at Salonica, a duchy at Athens, a principality in the Morea; while the Venetians seized the Ionian Islands, Crete, and the Cyclades, and so laid the foundations of their empire. The representatives of the Eastern Empire established themselves in little States at Nicæa, Heraclea, Trebizond, and in Epirus. For fifty years Latins and

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Greeks fought over the relics of the Empire; the Latins were driven out of Constantinople (1261), but the Eastern Empire never recovered, and the powerful State, which had been the rampart of Europe against the Turks, was left impotent to resist their next attack.

CHRISTIAN ADVANCE IN SPAIN

The Crusading spirit, thus aroused, found other vents also, especially in Spain (**Plate 28**, *c* and *d*). Until the eleventh century the Christians in Spain had been penned into a series of small States among the mountains of the extreme north (cf. **Plate 9**): Galicia, Leon, Asturias, Castile, and Navarre, while in the north-east the county of Barcelona (Charlemagne's Spanish March) was attached to the kingdom of France. In 1002 the Caliphate of Cordova fell into decrepitude and broke into a number of warring Emirates. This gave opportunity to the Christian States, among which now first appeared the little hill-State of Aragon. Under Ferdinand I and Alfonso VI of Castile (1035–1108) the Douro Valley was conquered and Portugal began its history as a vassal county of Castile (1095); the western part of the central plateau was conquered as far as Toledo (1085), and Alfonso VI even penetrated to Gibraltar. This period of advance was checked by the Almoravides, a Berber tribe from Africa, who defeated Alfonso VI at Zallaca (1086) but could not regain the conquests of the previous generation. In the eleventh century there had been little religious fanaticism in Spain, but the ferocity of the Almoravides, and perhaps the influence of the great Crusades, aroused the Crusading fervour in Spain during the twelfth century, brought the aid of many knights from Western Europe, and led to the creation of fighting orders of knights on the analogy of the Templars. Throughout this century the reconquest was steadily carried on by Portugal, Castile, and Aragon, making a parallel southward advance. But it was again checked by a new body of African Moslems, the Almohades, whose victory at Alarcos (1185) stopped progress for a generation. In 1212 the united forces of the chief Iberian States won the crowning victory of Las Navas de Tolosa. James I of Aragon (1213–76) and Saint Ferdinand of Castile (1214–52) completed the work, and by 1257 the Moors were penned into the narrow Emirate of Granada (**Plate 28***d*), which was to be torn from them in 1492.—The Crusading fervour also stimulated a rapid advance in Eastern Germany, and especially in Prussia, which will be referred to later (*see* **Plate 33**).

THE HEART OF THE MIDDLE AGES

The age of the Crusades was the golden age of Mediævalism. It was the age of chivalry, of Gothic architecture, of the rise of universities, of the friars, of expanding trade, of revived study of law, of great saints, great thinkers, and great lawgivers. In the second half of the twelfth century two powerful personalities dominated Western Europe. One was the Emperor Frederick I (Barbarossa), under whom the mediæval empire reached its apogee. Although he had serious difficulties in Germany with the great rival house of Guelf (*see* **Plate 25***b*), and in Italy with the Popes and the thriving towns of Lombardy, now striving for independence and strong enough to beat him in the field (*see* **Plate 28***b*), he held his own and was the greatest prince that Europe had known since Charlemagne. The other was Henry II, who added to the crown of England a vague suzerainty over Scotland and Ireland, and a vast collection of French fiefs which had come to him by inheritance and marriage (**Plate 22**) (*see below*, p. 30). Between this Angevin empire, which Henry II knew how to control, and the empire of Frederick Barbarossa, the kingdom of France, with its petty royal domain, seemed to be crushed between the upper and the nether millstones; but the expansion of the French monarchy was soon to begin at the expense of both these neighbours.

To the thirteenth century, which is the cream of the mediæval period, we have devoted fuller attention in these maps than to any earlier period.

THE MEDIÆVAL CHURCH AND THE UNIVERSITIES

Plate 27 illustrates the great cultural movement which was alive in this period: it shows the organisation of the Latin Church, under whose shelter civilisation had thriven; it shows some of the principal monasteries; and it shows the universities which were now springing up, indicating by different symbols the universities founded before 1300, those between 1300 and 1400, and those between 1400 and the Reformation. The distribution of these dated symbols gives some indication of the way in which the higher civilisation now coming into being spread outwards from its main centres in Italy and France.

WESTERN EUROPE IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

Plate 24–5 is the first of a series of four plates which show in detail and on an ample scale the most important terrain of European civilisation, France and Germany; the later maps in this series are **Plates 36–7, 46–7**, and (with a smaller area) **60**.

The boundaries shown in **Plate 24–5** are not for exactly the same date. For those in France the date 1259 has been taken, when by the Treaty of Paris (between Louis IX of France and Henry III of England) the limits of the English possessions in France were definitely fixed. For Germany, Italy, and Burgundy the date is a little earlier—before the death of Frederick II (1250). The main feature of the map is the contrast between the process of consolidation under a strong monarchy which was going forward in France, and the process of disintegration which was going on in the Empire, though the latter process did not reach its height until the Interregnum (1254–73), when rival claimants strove for the imperial title and were unable to maintain the imperial authority.

In **Germany** note: (1) the narrow limits of the territory directly controlled by the Emperors; (2) the emergence of a number of ecclesiastical States, due to the grant by the Emperors of political powers to many of the bishops, as a means of checking the lay princes: in all subsequent maps before the nineteenth century these ecclesiastical States are to be among the distinctive features of the political geography of Germany; (3) the formation of many feudal principalities, soon to be independent States, Frederick II having granted full hereditary rights to the lay nobles. Some of the principalities established in this period were to play important parts in European history. Among these rising dynasties may be noted the Wittelsbachs in Bavaria and in the Palatinate of the Rhine, the Guelfs in Brunswick and the Wettins in Saxony, all of which survived as ruling dynasties until the German revolution of 1918. Observe how the name of Saxony is moving across the map. The old historic duchy of the north-west (**Plate 15**) had been suppressed by Frederick Barbarossa after his strife with Henry the Lion (**Plate 25***b*); its title clung to the extreme south-eastern corner of the old duchy; but the main territories of the Wettins lay outside the old duchy, on lands that had been Slavonic, and the name of Saxony came to be attached to these lands. This is in itself a sign of a fourth noteworthy fact illustrated by this map—the steady eastward expansion of Germany in spite of the weakness of the monarchy (cf. **Plate 15**). The region between the Elbe and the Oder had become thoroughly German: the Margraviate of Brandenburg (which passed in 1415 to the House of Hohenzollern, in 1250 Burgraves of Nuremberg) was one of the most powerful German States; farther south, Austria was also thoroughly Germanised: it

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was to come in 1282 to the House of Habsburg, now Landgraves in Alsace. Already (1226) the Teutonic knights were beginning their conquests among the pagan Prussians, and the Hanseatic towns (of which the most important were the Wendish group, including Lübeck—all on Slavonic territory) were already vigorous: the later development of these expansive forces is shown in **Plate 33**.

In **Italy**, to which the Emperor Frederick II gave most of his attention, note that the Norman kingdom of Sicily had passed to the Hohenstauffen Emperors in 1198: it was the threat of this power to the southward which intensified the enmity of the Popes, who claimed suzerainty over Sicily, and during the struggle with the Hohenstauffen offered it first to a son of Henry III of England (1254) and then to Charles of Anjou of the French royal house (1262), who already held Anjou in France and Provence in Burgundy; in 1268 Charles made good his claim, which (reverting to the main French line) ultimately formed the pretext for the French invasion of Italy in 1494. Another ground of dispute between Pope and Emperor was the claim which Frederick II asserted to a large part of the Papal States, and to the heritage of Countess Matilda (*see* **Plate 28***a*). The Italian cities of the north were now rich and independent, and were the most dangerous enemies of the Empire: cf. **Plate 28***b*, which shows the members of the Lombard League. Elsewhere powerful feudal principalities were rising: note especially the rise of the House of Savoy (partly in Italy, partly in Burgundy), which, after a long history, was to be the nucleus of the future united Italy. The independence of the Italian cities and duchies was fully established during the Interregnum of 1254–73.

Burgundy had practically ceased to render any effective obedience to the Emperor, and had no effective central government: most of it was to pass gradually to France (*see* **Plate 25***a*). In **France** the outstanding feature of this period was the growth of the royal domain and of the centralised power of the monarchy. The stages of this growth, down to the Hundred Years' War, are shown in **Plate 25***a*; but this can give only a rough indication, as the crown frequently alienated territories to form appanages for the younger princes of the royal house. The main map shows the state of things in 1259. Compare this map with **Plate 22**, and note the shrinkage of the English dominions in seventy years, mainly owing to King John (*see below*, p. 31). The chief additions to the royal domain during

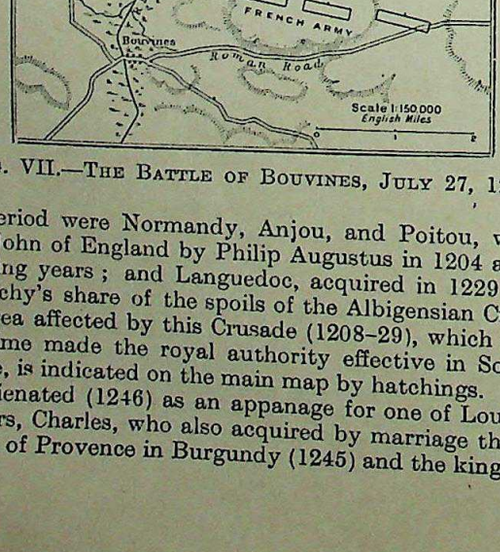

FIG. VII.—THE BATTLE OF BOUVINES, JULY 27, 1214

this period were Normandy, Anjou, and Poitou, wrested from John of England by Philip Augustus in 1204 and the following years; and Languedoc, acquired in 1229 as the monarchy's share of the spoils of the Albigensian Crusade. The area affected by this Crusade (1208–29), which for the first time made the royal authority effective in Southern France, is indicated on the main map by hatchings. Anjou was alienated (1246) as an appanage for one of Louis IX's brothers, Charles, who also acquired by marriage the great county of Provence in Burgundy (1245) and the kingdom of Naples and Sicily (1268). Anjou reverted to the French crown in 1328, Provence in 1486. In the same way Poitou became an appanage for Louis IX's brother, Alphonse, who acquired by marriage the very important county of Toulouse: all his lands reverted to the crown in 1271. It is impossible to follow in detail the growth of the royal domain after the date of this map, but it was greatly increased during the eighty years which elapsed before the outbreak of the Hundred Years' War, especially by the acquisition of Champagne under Philip the Fair: *see* **Plate 25***a*.

EASTERN EUROPE IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

Plate 26 shows the condition of Eastern Europe at about the same period as **Plate 24–5**. The **Eastern Empire** had entered upon its last period: it never recovered from the damage wrought by the fourth Crusade (cf. **Plate 23***b*). By 1250, indeed, the Greek Emperors had recovered most of their domains in the Balkan Peninsula, but Greece still remained in the hands of Western feudatories and the islands were mainly held by Venice. In 1259 the lords of the Morea were compelled to yield the small district of Laconia to the Emperor, and in 1261 Constantinople became again the seat of Empire. But the Eastern Empire was a shadow of what it had been, and though it was to survive for two centuries more, this would scarcely have happened if the Turks of Asia Minor had not been distracted by the attacks of the Mongols from Central Asia (*see* **Plate 30–1**). The kingdom of **Bulgaria**, completely independent of the Empire since 1186, was now at the height of its power: its golden age was the first half of the thirteenth century, when the able rulers of the Asen Dynasty extended their authority over Albania, Macedonia, and Thrace; it was to this period that the Bulgarians looked back with longing during the centuries of Turkish supremacy, which was to begin in the next century. **Serbia** also, long weakened by its division into clans, had been united in 1169 into a single monarchy which included the north-east of modern Serbia, with Bosnia, Dalmatia, and Croatia; its greatest period was to come in the next century, under Stephen Dushan (1330–55). Farther north, the kingdom of **Hungary** had just entered upon a constitutional regime by the issue of the Golden Bull (1222), which has been compared with the English Magna Carta; but the country was in a condition of feudal anarchy, unable to resist external attack.

While the Southern Slavs of the Balkan Peninsula were being consolidated, a feature of this period was the progressive collapse of the Western and Northern Slavs (separated from the Southern Slavs by Hungary) in face of attacks from the west, north, and east. The kingdom of **Bohemia** was the best consolidated of the Slav realms, and under Ottakar II (1253–78) it was one of the most powerful States in Europe: Ottakar for a time made himself master of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and the Tyrol. But Bohemia was closely linked with Germany, of which its king was an Elector; German influence was dominant in Prague, and German settlers were very numerous. **Poland** was in a state of anarchy, having broken up into warring principalities; and the Polish province of Silesia had been largely Germanised by immigration. To the north the Teutonic Knights were establishing themselves in what had been Polish territory. In **Russia** the group of principalities into which the Varangian kingdom had broken up were still at war with one another. The **Lithuanians** in the north-west (a non-Slavic people who were not converted to Christianity until 1387) were beginning to expand at the cost of divided Russia. All this group of confused and anarchic Slavonic peoples which thus lay on the eastern border of European civilisation were being gradually penetrated by the influence of the Germans, and they were quite incapable of resisting the formidable attack which came upon them from the east.

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THE MONGOLS IN ASIA AND EUROPE

Plate 30–1 illustrates the condition of Asia at the time when Western Europe first obtained effective knowledge of it, through the journeys of Carpini, Rubruquis, and the Poli. It was the pressure of the Mongol power in the thirteenth century which sent European explorers across Asia, and disclosed the rich and settled civilisations of the East.

The Mongolian family of peoples are known to have extended, at any rate since the beginning of the Christian era, from Manchuria and the Pacific to the Baltic and Black Seas, haunting especially the steppe-lands, which are the natural home of nomads (*see* **Plate 2–3**). Though there were wide differences of language amongst them, they were never very clearly divided into distinct races or " nations "; being mostly nomadic in their habit of life, they shifted and melted easily into one another. From this vague and shifting mass of peoples, whom the European nations have at various times known as Scythians, Huns, Turks, Tatars, Mongols, successive offshoots had from time to time raided and terrorised Europe, and in a few cases settled there: the Huns of Attila, the Avars, the Bulgarians, the Magyars, were all branches of this wide-spreading stock, as were the various bands of Turks who from the ninth century onwards raided and controlled the greater part of the once consolidated Saracen Empire. At the beginning of the thirteenth century a group of tribes in modern Mongolia, consolidated under the rule of a single prince whose centre was at Karakorum, began to conquer and assimilate the kindred races to the south and west of them. In the absence of any strongly felt racial distinctions, the task was an easy one. Under the captaincy of a great military genius who assumed the title of Zenghiz Khan (*Illustrious King*) (1162–1227), they had conquered China, brought all the wandering tribes of Central Asia under their control, overrun Persia and Mesopotamia, and threatened the Turks in Asia Minor. A new barbarian threat to civilisation seemed to overhang Europe when the Western Mongols under Batu burst into Russia and in a series of battles (1224–40) forced all the Russian States to accept the supremacy of a western khanate, the capital of which was planted at Sarai, on the lower Volga. Russia remained subject to this **Golden Horde** until 1380. In 1241 the Mongols made a great raid into Central Europe, which greatly alarmed the Emperor and the King of France. They devastated Poland, Silesia, and Hungary, but the gallant resistance of the Silesians and (especially) of the Moravians made their victories fruitless, and they withdrew leaving desolation behind them. The Slavs, despite their weakness, had saved Europe, as the Eastern Empire had earlier done. There was an equally destructive raid in 1259, but no permanent conquest. Europe was so much interested in this menace from the East that two adventurous friars, Rubruquis and Carpini, were sent out respectively by the King of France and the Pope to open relations with the distant centre of the Mongol Empire. They penetrated to Mongolia and China, and their journeys, followed by those of Marco Polo, made Europe acquainted for the first time with the East. Their routes are shown in **Plate 30–1**.

For convenience of administration the outlying parts of the unwieldy Mongolian empire were divided into three parts under the three sons of Zenghiz: (1) **Kipchak**, the " Golden Horde " of South Russia; (2) **Djagatai**, Central Asia, including Turkestan, Bokhara, Samarkand, etc.; (3) **Ilkhan**, including Persia and Armenia; but during the thirteenth century all these dominions continued to recognise the supremacy of the main kingdom of Mongolia and China under Kubla Khan (1259–94), the Emperor whom Marco Polo visited, the greatest of the Emperors of China, and practically Emperor of Asia. In the fourteenth century this vast empire rapidly broke into fragments. In 1368 China was lost, passing under the native Ming Dynasty, while the more strictly Mongolian regions first became independent and then broke into innumerable fragments. This rendered possible the rise of the Ottoman Empire in Western Asia. On the ruins of the Mongol Empire in Central and South-west Asia a new adventurer, Timur or Tamerlane, built up at the end of the fourteenth century another short-lived empire, which stretched from the Hindu Kush to the Euphrates, threatened to destroy the power of the Ottoman Turks, and gravely alarmed Europe. Its extent is shown on the map.

EUROPE IN 1360

Plate 29 illustrates the condition of Europe at an interval of a century from the dates of **Plates 24–5 and 26.** In the west, the rapid advance of the French monarchy (**Plate 25*a***) was continued by the acquisition of Dauphiné in the old kingdom of Burgundy (1349), but received a severe check in the reverses of the Hundred Years' War, which re-established the English crown in a great area of French territory (**Plate 22*a***). In **Spain** the Christian kingdoms had completed the reconquest of the Peninsula from the Moors, all but the small Emirate of Granada, which remained independent until 1492. The kingdom of Aragon had begun to make conquests in the Mediterranean, having acquired Sicily and Sardinia (1282) as a result of the revolt of the Sicilians against the French House of Anjou: this was the beginning of the long rivalry of France and Spain for the control of Italy.

Italy had now ceased to be in any effective way linked with Germany: the expeditions of the Emperors Henry VII (1308–13) and Louis the Bavarian (1327–30) were the last attempts of German kings to assert their authority in Italy. The fourteenth century saw the rise to great splendour of a group of powerful city republics (notably Venice, Florence, Genoa, and Pisa) and of a number of despotic princes, of whom the most powerful were the Visconti of Milan. This was for Italy a period of very rapid trade expansion and intellectual and artistic development. Venice and Genoa were engaged in fierce rivalry for trade and territory in the Eastern Mediterranean. The Popes had removed their seat of government from Rome to Avignon (1305–76), and in their absence the Papal States saw the rise of a multitude of independent princelets. In the south, since 1268, the French House of Anjou had held the quondam Norman State of Naples and Sicily, but had lost Sicily and Sardinia to Aragon (1282). The House of Anjou, however, formed one of the most powerful factors in European politics; it held also the county of Provence; and in 1305 a scion of this house was chosen for the crown of Hungary. Thus French influence was widespread in Europe, though French power was for the moment obscured.

The disorganisation of **Germany** had crystallised since 1250: the Interregnum of 1254–73 had destroyed the authority of the Emperor, and turned the innumerable small and large feudal holdings (some 350) into independent States; the Empire had become strictly elective, and had passed repeatedly from one house to another. The new system of frozen anarchy was defined in the Golden Bull (1356), which fixed the number and powers of the seven Electors (the Archbishops of Mainz, Cologne, and Trèves, and the lay States of Saxony, Brandenburg, the Palatinate, and Bohemia), whose lands are specially indicated in **Plate 36–7.** The true Germany west of the Elbe and Saale had become a chaos of tiny States: only east of this line, on territory won from the Slavs, were there States of substantial size—Brandenburg, Saxony, Bohemia, Austria. Two important ruling houses had emerged in addition to those already noted (above, p. 9). The **Habsburgs**, two of whom had held the imperial title, had used their position to

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add the duchy of Austria to their older lands of Alsace and Switzerland ; henceforth they are the House of Austria, one of the main factors in European politics (*see* **Plate 40***a*). But at the date of the map they were overshadowed by the House of **Luxemburg**, which held the imperial crown for a long spell, was elected to the crown of Bohemia (made vacant by the extinction of the old native line, 1306), and also established its suzerainty over the divided duchy of Silesia (1329), now thoroughly Germanised and henceforth cut off from Poland and included among the " lands of the Bohemian crown." In spite of the weakness of their government, the German people were still vigorously expanding eastwards : this was the time of the greatest power of the Hanseatic League and the Teutonic Knights (*see* **Plate 33**). But this expansion had almost reached its term, owing to the consolidation of the Eastern States.

Poland, which had seemed to be going the way of Silesia, was united under a single crown (1320), was reorganised by the great King Casimir II (1333–70), and after a brief period of union with the crown of Hungary was permanently united with Lithuania (1386) by the marriage of the heiress of Poland to the Duke of Lithuania. This " Union of Lublin " turned Poland into a State of the first rank. **Lithuania** meanwhile had immensely extended her area by conquering former Russian States, including the ancient capital of Kief. Three-fourths of the area of Lithuania as shown in the map was really Russian, and it was inevitable that these lands should be reclaimed, as they were, by the Polish partitions of the eighteenth century (cf. **Plates 56 and 57**). Both Poland and Lithuania had carried on long struggles with the Teutonic Knights, whose expansion was now brought to an end. **Russia** also was beginning to revive : the princes of Moscow were establishing a lead over their neighbours, and they were soon (battle of Kulikovo, 1380) to throw off the Mongol yoke.

In the Balkans the **Eastern Empire** was at a low ebb of its fortunes. Its lands were reduced to three separate fragments. It was threatened from two sides. In Asia Minor the Ottoman **Turks** (*see* **Plate 40***b*) had torn away the last of the imperial possessions ; in 1360 they got a foothold in Europe, at Gallipoli, and three years later captured Philippopolis. **Bulgaria** was no longer dangerous, but under Stephen Dushan (1330–55) the **Serbs** had built up a formidable empire which threatened Constantinople from the north. At the moment of his death it seemed an open question whether the Serbs or the Turks would become masters of Constantinople. In **Hungary** the kings of the Angevin line (from 1305), notably Louis the Great (1342–82), largely overcame the anarchy of the last century, and made Hungary a great power.

MEDIÆVAL COMMERCE IN EUROPE

European trade had been steadily developing since the eleventh century, and especially since the first Crusade had given more direct access to the trade of the East ; but in the fourteenth century it had reached a high stage of development. In **Plate 32** an attempt is made to indicate the times taken in travel from the chief centres of trade by the modes of transport most used at this time. These indications should be useful not only for the student of mediæval commerce, but also for the student of military and political history. The main trade-routes are also shown in **Plate 32** ; while the routes by which the trade of Asia reached Europe are indicated in **Plate 30–1**. They ran from China through Turkestan to Samarkand ; thence down the Oxus and round the north of the Caspian, whence one stream ascended the Volga to Novgorod, where there was a collecting factory for the Hanseatic towns ; while another stream came to Azof and so to the Crimea, where the Genoese had their stations. Or they passed across Persia, over the Taurus to Trebizond, and by the Black Sea to Constantinople, or down through Mesopotamia to the Syrian coast. From India goods passed through the Khyber Pass to join the Persian routes ; or by sea up the Persian Gulf to Basra and thence to Trebizond or to Aleppo and the Syrian ports ; or up the Red Sea to Egypt. By these routes came spices, gems, wrought steel, muslins, silks and other fine stuffs, or the rugs and pottery of Persia. At all the Mediterranean ports they were picked up by the merchants of Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Florence, Barcelona, and Marseilles, who distributed them far and wide. From the Italian centres, Venice, Milan, Genoa—which had also their own home products to distribute—there were routes through the Alps, especially over the Brenner (*see* **Plate 38***a*) to the thriving towns of South Germany, Augsburg, Ratisbon, Nuremberg, and so on to the Hansa towns of the north ; or down the busy Rhine ; or up the Rhone from Marseilles to the great fairs of North and Central France, of which Troyes was the greatest. There was a great centre of industry in the rich and turbulent cities of Flanders, Ghent, Bruges, and Ypres, which worked up the wool of England ; while a whole network of trade-routes linked the Hansa towns of North Germany with one another, with Flanders, and with all the chief ports of the Baltic and the North Sea (cf. **Plate 33**).

THE BALTIC LANDS AND THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE

The remarkable League of the Hanseatic towns, some seventy in number, with Lübeck as their centre, is illustrated on **Plate 33**. This highly independent alliance had been rendered necessary by the inability of the German monarchy to give adequate protection. It controlled the whole trade of North Germany and the Baltic, and had its main foreign factories at Novgorod, Bruges, London, and Bergen. It had arisen in the thirteenth century, and was now at the height of its power, fighting on equal terms with the Danes for the control of the exit from the Baltic to the North Sea ; but it began to decay during the next century.—**Plate 33** also illustrates the highest extension of the power of the Teutonic Knights, whose growth was now beginning to be checked by the consolidated power of Poland and Lithuania. Planted in 1226 on the Lower Vistula, they absorbed in 1237 the earlier Knights of the Sword who had conquered Livonia and Kurland, and they had mastered the heathen Prussians by the end of the thirteenth century. Their tide turned when they were defeated by the Poles at Tannenberg (1422) and were later compelled to surrender Pomerelia (West Prussia) and Ermeland, and to pay suzerainty to the King of Poland.—**Plate 33** also illustrates the three Scandinavian kingdoms, now Christian and civilised, but not yet counting for much in European affairs. They were to be united in 1397 by the Union of Kalmar.

WESTERN EUROPE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY

Plate 36–7 is the second of the series of four large-scale maps dealing in detail with this area. It shows France, Germany, and North Italy at the close of the Middle Ages, and on the eve of the Reformation, and of the great discoveries which were so vastly to enlarge the stage of history.

Italy was in this period—the era when the Renascence of Learning was at its height—the real centre of European civilisation, but it was soon to be ruined by becoming the battleground of rivalry between France and Spain. The map (*see also* **Plate 39**, *a*, *d*, *e*) shows the five principal States (Milan, Venice, Florence, the Papacy, and Naples) which now dominated Italian politics. The stages whereby the republics of Florence and Venice had built up their power are shown in **Plate 39**, *d* and *e*. Note also the solid territory

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of the duchy of Savoy-Piedmont, astride of the Alps: the stages of its growth are shown in **Fig. X**, p. 18.

France had, at the date of the map, just begun to recover from the strain of the Hundred Years' War, the second phase of which (under Henry V and VI) is illustrated in **Plate 37*b***. In spite of the huge English gains there shown for 1429, by 1453 England had lost every shred of French territory except Calais. The struggle, and especially the episode of Joan of Arc, had aroused a strong national feeling in France, of which Charles VII and Louis XI knew how to take advantage. By the creation of a professional army, and by a long series of wars with the great feudatories, they raised the power of the monarchy to a height never reached before. The duchy of Burgundy was added to the royal domain in 1477 after the death of Charles the Bold, Provence in 1486, and Brittany (on the marriage of its heiress to Charles VIII) in 1491; and the French monarchy stood forth as the most fully consolidated and powerful in Europe.

The severest struggle of Louis XI was against the House of **Burgundy**, which had been the chief support of England in the time of Henry V, and whose wide lands stand forth on the map. It was a very recently established power, but for a time it seemed likely to become a middle kingdom between France and Germany. The first of this line of Dukes of Burgundy was a son of King John of France, who received the *duchy* as an appanage in 1363; in 1384 he acquired by marriage Flanders and Artois, the *county* of Burgundy (Franche Comté), and the county of Nevers. His grandson Philip the Fair acquired Namur (1421), Brabant, Limburg, Antwerp (1430), Hainault, Holland, Zeeland, Friesland (1433), and Luxemburg (1445). By the Treaty of Arras (1435) he also obtained in pledge a group of fortresses in Picardy, and was exempted for his lifetime from homage to the King of France. His successor, Charles the Bold, acquired Gelderland (1472) and Upper Alsace (1474). These wide lands fell into two groups—the Burgundian group in the south, and the Netherlands group in the north, separated by Lorraine, which Charles the Bold seized in 1475. Parts of each group (duchy of Burgundy and Flanders) were held under the French crown, the other parts (county of Burgundy and the other Netherland lordships) under the Empire. It was the Burgundian supremacy that for the first time brought all the Netherlands under a single control, and thus founded two future States. Charles the Bold nearly succeeded in welding these wide dominions into a "middle kingdom." After his death, though the original duchy of Burgundy was occupied by Louis XI, Charles's daughter Mary still preserved the Netherlands and Franche Comté, and was the greatest heiress in Europe.

In **Germany** the process of disintegration already at work in 1250 (**Plate 24–5**) was now complete, and the patchwork pattern which the map of Germany continued to present until the time of Napoleon was fixed. The attempts which had been made to give some semblance of unity to Germany are shown on the map: the inalienable lands of the seven Electors by red outlines on the main map; the "circles" into which the innumerable States had been grouped for military purposes on the **Inset 37*a***. Among the principal States, Brandenburg had been, since 1415, under the House of Hohenzollern, which was in the distant future to unify Germany; while the Houses of Wettin (Saxony), Wittelsbach (Bavaria and the Palatinate), and Guelf (Brunswick) were each divided into two branches. The lands of the House of Habsburg (*see* **Plate 40*a***), which had long been divided under several branches, were reunited by Maximilian (1493). This prince married the heiress of Burgundy, and thus linked her lands with those of Austria; their son Philip married the heiress of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile; whence came the vast and disparate empire of Charles V. Frederick III, father of Maximilian, was elected Emperor in 1440, and from that date the imperial title remained in the House of Habsburg, with only one interruption (1740), until the abolition of the Holy Roman Empire in 1806.—It is enough to look at the contrast between the consolidated monarchy of France and the chaotic state of Germany on the eve of the modern era in order to see that Germany was destined in the future to be the prey of France.

SWITZERLAND

Plate 38*b* shows one of the results of the disintegration of Germany in the rise of the Swiss Confederation. These mountain cantons had belonged partly to Germany, partly to the old kingdom of Burgundy (*see* **Plates 15, 16**). The group of forest cantons had in 1315 formed a league to defend themselves against the Habsburgs, whose original lands lay in this region, and against whom they waged long wars. Their success had gained for them high military prestige and secured their practical independence; neighbouring cantons joined them either as members of their confederacy, or as allies, while they jointly subjugated others. The dates of these additions to the confederacy are shown on the map. Two facts enhanced their prestige and power at the opening of the modern age: (1) In 1476 they had defeated and ruined Charles of Burgundy, who had come into conflict with them through his acquisition of the Habsburg lands in Alsace; (2) they played an important part in the Italian wars which began in 1494, both by their control of the Alpine passes and by their prowess as mercenary troops. By 1536 they had almost reached the limits of modern Switzerland; and another of the States of modern Europe had thus made its appearance on the map.

The political importance of the Swiss cantons was due to the fact that they controlled some of the most important passes through the Alpine barrier at a time when Italy was the battle-ground of Europe. The Alpine barrier is a vital factor in the strategic geography of Europe. **Plate 38*a*** illustrates this, and shows the passes and the numerous battlefields on both sides of the barrier, to illustrate both the sixteenth-century wars of Italy and many later campaigns.

MODERN EUROPE (1494–1919)

Europe and Western civilisation took a new direction at the end of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth centuries, which saw the beginning of the rivalry of nation-states, the widespread influence of the Renascence, the Reformation, and the opening up of the world by the great discoveries. Henceforward the stream of our narrative divides itself into two channels. The expansion of European civilisation over the outer world and the rivalry of the European States in that field will be dealt with in Section III of this Introduction; here we are concerned only with the development of the European State-system.

EUROPE IN 1519

Plate 41 shows the distribution of Europe at the opening of the new era. The main feature of the map is the contrast between the big, consolidated States which had been established in the west and in the east, and the disintegrated condition of Germany and Italy, which were for that reason to become the battlegrounds of the next three centuries. **France** had expelled the English (except from Calais), subjugated the last of the great feudatories, and taken another large bite out of the old kingdom of Burgundy by the acquisition of Provence (1486). **Spain** had been united by the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile (1479), the conquest of Granada (1492), and the conquest of Navarre (1512). **Portugal**, having reached

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her limits by the conquest of Algarve in 1253, was still inspired by the Crusading fervour, which had driven her, as it had also driven Spain, to play a leading part in the great explorations. **Switzerland**, though still nominally a member of the Empire, had become an independent confederation (**Plate 38***b*), and played an important part owing to her control of some of the chief Alpine passes (38*a*). The Scandinavian Powers had been united since 1397 in the Union of Calmar. This union was dissolved when Sweden asserted its independence in 1523, but both **Sweden** and **Denmark** (with Norway) were henceforth to play a greater part than heretofore in the politics of Europe. These were the consolidated nation-states of Western Europe ; and it is significant that their boundaries remained henceforward almost unchanged. The nation-state, held together by national sentiment, had now become the dominant factor in European politics, displacing the chaotic regime of feudalism.

In Eastern Europe consolidation was less secure, but it was taking place. **Poland**, united with Lithuania since 1382, and having reduced the Teutonic Knights to vassalage and torn from them the province of West Prussia (1466), was in extent one of the greatest States in Europe, and played a great part in its affairs. In **Russia** all the little principalities not already absorbed in Lithuania had now been subjected to the despotism of the Tsar of Moscow (Muscovy) (**Plate 68**), and the first great builder of the Russian Empire, Ivan the Terrible, was soon to come to power (1553). **Hungary** had enjoyed its greatest period of power in the fifteenth century, when under its kings John Hunyadi and Matthias Corvinus it waged constant wars against the Turks, from whom it was Europe's main defence. In 1490 Hungary had been united with Bohemia (with which were linked Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia, "the lands of the Bohemian Crown") by the election of Ladislaus II of Bohemia as king. Under his inert rule and that of his son Hungary fell into feudal chaos, and was therefore unable to resist the invading Turks (1526), who were soon to overrun the greater part of the country (**Plate 40***b*) and to retain it for a century and a half. What remained of Hungary, together with the Bohemian lands, then passed through a marriage connection to the House of Austria (1526): *see* **Plate 40***a*. The **Ottoman Turks** were masters of the whole Balkan Peninsula with the exception of a few patches of mainland held by Venice along with Crete and other islands ; the Rumanian princes of Wallachia and Moldavia also recognised the Ottoman supremacy : *see* **Plate 40***b*.

In the midst of these great States Germany and Italy remained in the confusion to which their mediæval history had reduced them. In **Germany** an ineffectual attempt had been made to strengthen the imperial power by the grouping of the States in circles for military and other purposes (*see* **Plate 36–7**), but the various States were practically independent : they numbered over 300, the largest among them being Brandenburg, Saxony, Bavaria, Austria, and the Palatinate. In **Italy** the chief change since 1454 (*see* **Plate 39***a*) was the landward expansion of Venice (*see* **Plate 39***d*) ; but even Venice had already passed her greatest days, owing to the power of the Turks in the East and the opening of the ocean routes to trade. Since 1494 Italy had been the scene of a confused series of wars in which the consolidated powers of Spain and France had fought out their rivalry : as a result of these wars Spain now held the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, as well as Sardinia ; France held the duchy of Milan, which she was to lose in 1525.

But the most remarkable feature of the map is the sudden emergence, under Charles V, of a vast and scattered **Habsburg Empire**, which ran counter to the movement towards national consolidation, and threatened the possibility of a new Empire of Latin Christendom. Charles V (Charles I of Spain) inherited through his mother Juana the united kingdoms of Castile and Aragon, together with Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia and the new empire now rising in America ; through his father Philip (son of Maximilian of Bavaria and Mary of Burgundy) he inherited the Netherlands and Franche Comté and the German lands of the Habsburgs (Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Tyrol, and Upper Alsace) ; and when to all these lands he added in 1519 the imperial crown (against the competition of the Kings of France and England) he became the centre of the most extensive empire that Europe had seen since Charlemagne. In 1521 he handed over the Austrian lands to his brother Ferdinand, who was soon to acquire Bohemia and part of Hungary : this began the history of the two branches of the Habsburg House, the Austrian and the Spanish. But there were many elements of weakness in this formidable power. (1) Each section of it had different traditions and systems of government ; in Spain there was friction between Aragon and Castile, and in the Netherlands the various provinces, recently united, were tenacious of their rights. (2) The dominions of Charles V were so scattered that in every case communications between them were at the mercy of his enemies. (3) While he threatened to surround France, he also lay exposed to the attacks of that consolidated power, with whom accordingly he had to wage incessant war. (4) In the East and in the Mediterranean he had to resist the formidable attacks of the Turks, now at their strongest under Solyman the Magnificent. (5) In Italy his position was such as to alarm the Papacy as much as the Empire of the Hohenstauffen had done. (6) In Germany he had to deal with the jealousy of all the minor princes, and his difficulties were vastly increased by the Reformation, which these princes used for their own purposes. Hence, despite all his resources, patience, and skill, he failed to consolidate his power in Germany and Italy, and left these countries even more disunited than before.

FORMATION OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

Plate 40*a* illustrates the formation of a new power of the first rank, which emerged in the sixteenth century and continued to be one of the Great Powers from that date until the Great War of 1914–18. The Austrian Empire was from the first distinguished from the other Great Powers (France, Spain, England) by the fact that it was never held together by any bonds of national sentiment, but only by the military power of a ruling dynasty. Beginning with a small feudal holding in Swabia, the Habsburg family had in the thirteenth century acquired Austria and Styria, which always remained the centre of their power, and had in the fourteenth century added Carinthia, Carniola, and the Tyrol. When the modern age opened, their lands were still almost purely German, though on the frontiers of "Deutschtum." In 1526, however, Ferdinand of Austria, brother of Charles V, inherited all the lands of Louis of Hungary that were left free from Turkish control after the battle of Mohacs, in which Louis was killed. These included (1) the "lands of the Bohemian crown"—Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia—Slavonic lands only partially Germanised ; and (2) what remained of Hungary—a strip henceforward known as "Imperial Hungary," and mainly inhabited by Slavs (Slovaks in the north, Croats in the south). More than half of the subjects of Austria were thenceforth non-German, belonging to different branches of the Slav stock. In the Thirty Years' War the national spirit of the Czechs of Bohemia was cruelly crushed. At the end of the seventeenth century (*see* below, p. 19) the reconquest of the rest of Hungary added new racial elements, Magyars in the centre, Rumanians in the south-east, Serbs in the south-west ; and the acquisition of territories in Italy and the Netherlands

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during the eighteenth century, together with the partitions of Poland, made the non-national character of the Empire still more apparent. The prestige of the imperial title (held by the Austrian Habsburgs from the death of Charles V in 1555) doubtless helped to hold together these discordant elements, but the Austrian Empire was always weakened by the complete absence of any bond among its peoples save common subjection to a ruling house ; and this fact made it, especially in the nineteenth century, the steady foe of all nationalist movements, particularly in Germany and Italy. This also explains how readily the rulers of the Empire acquired, and how lightly they lost, the outlying territories of various nationalities, shown by bands of colour on the map. In a continent which was gradually adjusting its State-system to the natural affinities of its peoples, and making nationality the foundation and cement of States, the Austrian Empire was always a discordant and resistant factor, until it was finally broken up after the Great War.

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Plate 40*b* shows the stages in the building of the power of the Ottoman Turks, which began seriously to threaten Europe at the opening of the modern age, and continued to be one of the most troublesome of European problems down to the Great War. The Turks had controlled Asia Minor since 1071 (*see* above, p. 8). The Ottomans (followers of Othman) were not a separate race, but a dynastic group, who held the north-west of Asia Minor in the first half of the fourteenth century. Before the middle of the fifteenth century they had subjugated most of the other Turkish realms in Asia Minor, and had also conquered the greater part of the Balkan Peninsula. In 1453 they captured Constantinople, and made it their capital. By the end of the fifteenth century they had completed the conquest of Asia Minor, and pushed their conquests in Europe to the line of the Danube and the Save—they would have advanced farther north but for the gallant resistance of the Hungarians under Matthias Corvinus and John Hunyadi : Europe was in peril. In the early years of the sixteenth century (while the wars of Italy were raging in Europe) the Turks turned their attention eastward, and subdued Mesopotamia, Syria, and Egypt : the interruption thus caused to the traditional trade routes contributed to stimulate the great explorations. Just when Charles V succeeded to the Empire (1519) and the Reformation was introducing a new division in Europe, the greatest of the Ottoman Sultans, Solyman the Magnificent, burst the line of the Danube by the capture of Belgrade (1521), broke the power of Hungary at the battle of Mohacs (1526), and carried the bounds of the Ottoman Empire to the Carpathians. In the East he conquered Armenia and Iraq ; he also forced the Moslem rulers of Northern Africa, including the pirate chieftains of Tunis and Algiers, to accept his supremacy : for two generations Mohammedan fleets commanded the Mediterranean. Almost the whole of the realms of Islam were now united under Ottoman rule, and this added to the strength of the Empire, because it revived the old fervour. The peril to Europe was very real. The brunt of resistance fell upon three powers : Venice, whose strength was broken in the conflict (especially as the explorations were robbing her of her trade ascendancy) ; Austria ; and Poland, who was threatened from the south. The turning-points of the struggle were (1) the siege of Vienna, 1528 ; and (2) the naval battle of Lepanto, 1571. In the first half of the seventeenth century (while the Thirty Years' War was raging) the Turks were fortunately quiescent ; but it was not until the end of that century that the Ottomans were driven back behind the Danube. The later development of the Ottoman power can be traced in **Plates 56, 57, and 86** and the notes thereon.

THE WARS OF RELIGION

During the sixteenth century Western European politics were dominated by two factors : the endless rivalry between France and Spain which had already been displayed in the wars of Italy 1499–1525 ; and the conflict between Catholicism and Protestantism, which began almost from the morrow of Luther's theses (1517), and led to a long series of wars. These wars are illustrated by **Plate 46–7**, the third of the series of large-scale maps of Western Europe. The first serious and overt conflict was the War of Schmalkald, 1546–52, between Charles V and a League of Protestant princes, formed at Schmalkald in 1531 ; Henry II of France, though a strong Catholic, seized the opportunity of striking a blow for France, and acquired (1552) the three bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun (*see* **Inset 47*b***)—the first French acquisitions in Lorraine. Within Germany, this war led to the aggrandisement of the younger or Albertine branch of the House of Saxony (*see* **Inset 47*c***) at the expense of the older or Ernestine branch, which lost the electoral title.

In the second half of the century the **Netherlands** (*see* **Plate 53**) revolted against Philip II of Spain (1567) ; the

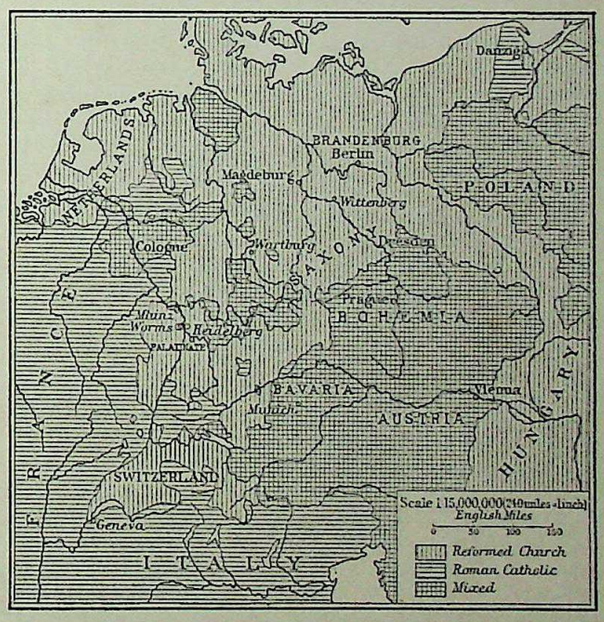

FIG. VIII.—RELIGIONS OF CENTRAL EUROPE, C. 1555

result of this revolt, after a long struggle, was the establishment of the seven northern provinces as an independent federation, while the southern provinces (modern Belgium) remained under Spanish control.

Meanwhile in **France** there had been a long series of civil wars (1562–98) between the Catholic party and the Protestants led by the House of Bourbon : its termination was followed by the tolerating Edict of Nantes. The places marked with a black square on **Plate 46–7** are the *places de sûreté* granted to the Protestants under the Edict of Nantes ; they give some indication of the geographical distribution of French Protestantism.

The last and greatest of the religious wars was the Thirty Years' War (1618–48), which began with a religious conflict in Germany and Bohemia. In the first stages it seemed likely that Protestantism would be overwhelmed by the Catholic German powers. This drew in Denmark and England, and later Sweden. The brilliant campaign of Gustavus Adolphus, the King of Sweden, which is shown in **Plate 46–7**, was in fact the turning-point of the war : it determined that half of Germany should remain Protestant. In its later stages the war lost its religious character, became

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mixed up with the Franco-Spanish rivalry, and gradually drew in most of the Powers of Europe, so that it may be described as the first general European war: France, Spain, Denmark, Sweden, England, and the Netherlands were all involved at one time or another; and in the later stages France made large gains at the expense of Germany, notably in Alsace (**Plate 47***b*), where she first touched the Rhine frontier, henceforward to haunt her dreams. The **Inset 47***a* shows the religious divisions of Europe at the beginning of the Thirty Years' War: note the distinction between the two Protestant groups, Lutheran and Calvinist, whose divisions were their ruin. Germany, though divided, had been highly prosperous in 1618; it took her two centuries to recover from the devastation and depopulation which the Thirty Years' War caused, and during all that period she was the prey of her neighbours.

THE NETHERLANDS

The successful revolt of the Netherlands against Philip II created a new independent State, shown on **Plate 53**, and known as the United Provinces, or (from the chief member of the confederacy) as Holland. In 1579, by the Union of Utrecht, the provinces of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, the northern part of Gelderland (the southern part remained under Spanish rule) and Zutphen bound themselves together for common defence, and in 1581 repudiated the sovereignty of the King of Spain. Friesland was included in the Union as a dependency of Holland, but later became a separate province. Zutphen was united with Gelderland. Overyssel and Drenthe both joined the Union, but Drenthe, being barren and thinly peopled, was never recognised as a separate province or represented in the States General. Groningen, conquered by the Provinces in 1584, became a province under the name of the Stadt en Landen. Thus the Seven United Provinces in the seventeenth century were Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland, Friesland, Groningen and Overyssel. During the long wars against Spain which raged at intervals until the independence of the Provinces was finally recognised in 1648 considerable conquests were made from the Spanish provinces, including the left bank of the lower Scheldt (1585) the lordship of Breda, part of northern Brabant, and the detached region of Maestricht (1631). These territories were called the "Lands of the Generality," and administered under the control of the Provinces as a whole. The Provinces thus controlled the outlets of the Rhine, the Meuse and the Scheldt; this largely accounted for their immense trading prosperity. Since 1648, when the independence of the United Provinces was finally recognised, their boundaries have never been altered, nor has their freedom ever been qualified except for a brief period during the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic era.

The southern provinces of Brabant, Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Artois, Cambrai, Limburg, and Luxemburg, together with the Bishopric of Liège, clung to the Roman faith, and remained under the rule of Spain; in 1713 they were transferred to Austria, in 1793 conquered by France, in 1815 attached to Holland, and in 1832 transformed into the kingdom of Belgium.

This map (which deals with an area unmarked by bold natural features capable of forming the boundaries of States) illustrates the extraordinary permanence of historical boundaries, even when they are quite artificial. The **Inset 53***c* shows the group of feudal States into which this area was divided in the Middle Ages, c. 1300, before they were united under the House of Burgundy, from whom Charles V and Philip II inherited them (cf. **Plate 36–7**): note how closely the feudal boundaries correspond with those of the later provinces. Even the strip of territory on the south bank of the Scheldt estuary had always been distinct from the County of Flanders, to which it might seem naturally to belong: it was held from the Empire, Flanders from France, throughout the Middle Ages. This strip has been of immense historical importance. Possession of it enabled the Dutch to close the Scheldt, and therefore to ruin the port of Antwerp, in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; the defiance of this restriction by the French Republic was the immediate occasion of the entry of England into the French Revolutionary War; and in the Great War, the Dutch ownership of this strip forbade the relief of Antwerp from the sea.

Until the revolutionary period and the reconstruction of 1815, the seven United Provinces did not form a consolidated State, but a loosely organised confederacy, dominated by their principal member, Holland. The supremacy of Holland was due to the fact that the Provinces derived their wealth and strength almost wholly from oversea trade and dominion, in which they enjoyed an astonishing predominance throughout the seventeenth century (*see* below, p. 42); and this trade centred in the ports of Holland, especially Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Dort or Dordrecht.

The southern or Belgic provinces, once the most prosperous centre of European trade (*see* **Plate 33** and note thereon), lost all their prosperity under the rule of Spain and Austria. Exposed to the attacks of France, they became the chief battle-ground of Europe. About one-third of their area (Artois, Cambrai, and parts of Flanders and Hainault) was conquered by France under Louis XIV; and in 1713 a line of fortresses (marked in the map) was set apart as a barrier against the French, to be garrisoned by the Dutch. This plate is designed to illustrate all the fighting which took place upon this field, especially the revolt of the Netherlands, the wars of Louis XIV, and the wars of the French Revolution. **Inset 53***b* illustrates the campaign of Waterloo. For the later history of the Netherlands, *see* below, pp. 20 and 23.

EUROPE IN 1648

Plate 55 shows in outline the effect of these wars upon the political distribution of Europe. The Treaties of Westphalia (1648) were the first of a series of general settlements of Europe by congresses of diplomats, and governed European politics until the French Revolution; the Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659) formed a sort of appendix, settling the terms of peace between France and Spain; and a series of treaties among the Northern Powers completed the settlement. It is significant that, in spite of the length and destructiveness of these wars, the actual territorial changes which they brought about were relatively slight.

The main feature of the map is the shrinkage of **Germany**. The United Provinces, Switzerland, and Italy ceased to be even nominally included in the Empire after 1648, while the conquests of France (the Three Bishoprics and S. Alsace; *see* **Plate 47***b*) were also withdrawn from it.

These were France's only gains at the expense of Germany. But by the Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659) she also acquired from Spain Cerdagne and Roussillon, which brought her frontier to the Pyrenees, and (in the Netherlands) the county of Artois (**Plate 53**) and a number of fortresses in Flanders, Hainault, and Luxemburg.

Note how foreign Powers were now cantoned in German territory; not only France, but Denmark (in Holstein) and, most notably, Sweden, who acquired (1) the secularised bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, which gave her command of the mouths of the Weser and Elbe, and (2) the small province of Western Pomerania, which gave her control of the mouth of the Oder.

Within Germany, the most notable change was the growth of **Brandenburg** (*see* **Plate 67***a*). Before the Thirty Years' War Brandenburg had acquired, in Western Germany, the duchies of Cleves, Mark, and Ravensburg (1614) and (out-

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side the Empire) the important province of East Prussia, which had been secularised (1525) by the last head of the Teutonic Order, Albert of Hohenzollern, when he became a Protestant ; it passed from his line to the main branch of the Hohenzollern line in 1618. By the Peace of Westphalia Brandenburg (then under the Great Elector, the first founder of her greatness) also acquired the secularised bishoprics of Magdeburg, Halberstadt, and Minden, and the extensive province of East Pomerania. In area, though not in other respects, Brandenburg now ranked next among the German States to Austria, and her growth and her rivalry with Austria form the chief interest of German history during the next century.

This period saw the emergence of **Sweden** as one of the Great Powers, a position which she owed to the ability of her kings from Gustavus Adolphus (1611–32) onwards, and to her admirable military system. She had nearly succeeded in turning the Baltic into a Swedish lake, having acquired Halland (on the Swedish mainland) from Denmark in 1645, conquered Ingria and Carelia from Russia (1617) and Esthonia and Livonia (formerly territories of the Teutonic Knights) from Poland (1629).

Poland, though still almost unimpaired in territory, and having indeed made substantial gains at the expense of Russia, had entered upon a period of disorganisation, following upon the extinction of the Jagellon Dynasty, which had created her greatness. In 1573 she adopted a new constitution, whereby the monarchy was made elective and reduced to impotence. The Cossacks of the Ukraine were in a state of simmering revolt against her.

Russia, which had suffered from an interval of confusion, had recovered with the accession of the Romanov dynasty (1623), who were to retain the throne until the revolution of 1917. A confused series of wars, in which Denmark, Sweden, Poland, Russia, and Brandenburg were all involved, had been raging at intervals during the first half of the seventeenth century ; they were temporarily brought to an end in the Treaties of Oliva, Copenhagen, and Kardis (1660–1) without material territorial change, but all this area of Eastern and Northern Europe was to undergo great changes during the next century (*see* **Plates 56 and 57**).

The period from 1660 to 1789 forms in some sense a unity, dominated in the west by the ambitions of France and the decadence of Spain, in Central Europe by the intensifying rivalry of Austria and Prussia, and in Northern and Eastern Europe by the decline of Sweden, Poland, and Turkey, and the rise at their expense of Russia, Austria, and Brandenburg-Prussia (which assumed the style of kingdom of Prussia in 1701). The period is illustrated by six maps : **Plate 61** shows the state of Europe in the later part of the period (1740) ; **Plate 60** gives a detailed treatment of France and Western Germany for the whole period on the same scale as **Plates 24–5, 36–7, and 46–7** ; **Plates 56 and 57** show the changes wrought in Central and Eastern Europe during the period ; while **Plate 67***a* shows the growth of Prussia and **Plate 68** the growth of Russia.

FRANCE IN THE SEVENTEENTH AND EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES

France under Louis XIV had reached its highest point of power and of centralised administration under absolute monarchy. **Plate 60** shows the administrative system (under Intendants) whereby the royal authority was enforced ; these officers had practically displaced, without abolishing, the older jurisdiction of the governors of provinces. The map also distinguishes between the provinces which preserved their traditional estates (*pays d'état*) and the provinces which were more completely under the royal control (*pays d'élection*) ; and between the areas of customary and written law, the latter being confined to the more fully Romanised south. These differences were not to be replaced by a uniform national system until the French Revolution. The **Inset 60***a* shows **Paris** in the eighteenth century and at the time of the French Revolution.

The increases of French territory which took place during this period were of considerable extent, and were all at the expense of the disintegrated Empire and decaying Spain : for fuller treatment of the conquests made at the expense of the Spanish Netherlands, and for the fighting in that region, *see* **Plate 53**. The main acquisitions were made by Louis XIV. In 1668 (Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle) Louis XIV obtained a line of fortresses on his northern frontier, some of which were restored in 1679 ; in 1679, by the treaty of Nimwegen, he obtained Franche Comté and a foothold in Germany at Freiburg ; in the following years he seized most of Alsace (including Strassburg) and some other places as " dependencies " of his previous

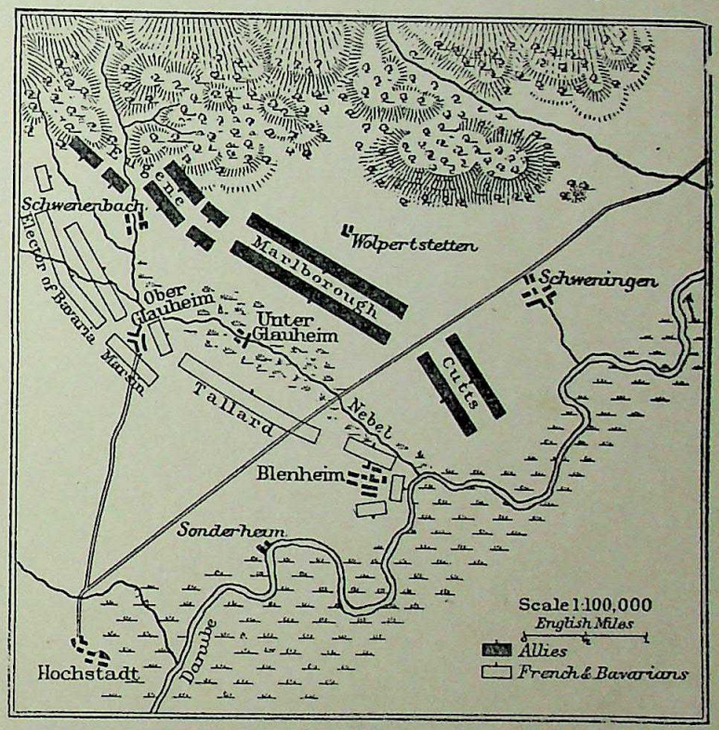

FIG. IX.—THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM, AUGUST 13, 1704

gains, under quasi-legal decisions of courts set up for the purpose. But these were the last gains he could make against a united Europe.

The only other acquisitions of importance made by France before the French Revolution were Lorraine and Corsica. **Lorraine** and Bar were given to the defeated King of Poland, Stanislaus Lesczynski, by the Treaty of Vienna, which closed the Polish Succession War (1738) ; at his death Lorraine and Bar passed to France (1766). **Corsica**, which had revolted against Genoa, and asked for English protection, was acquired by France through purchase from Genoa in 1768, with the result that Napoleon Bonaparte became a French instead of an English subject.

EUROPE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

The most important changes made in Western Europe during the first half of the eighteenth century are shown in **Plate 61**. They resulted from the War of the Spanish Succession and the confused diplomacy which followed after it. The last Spanish king of the Habsburg line died in 1700. Both France and Austria had claims upon

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the succession, but by will the dying king bequeathed his whole empire to a grandson of Louis XIV. The war which followed broke the power of Louis XIV, but in the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) which ended it France lost nothing in Europe, though she lost heavily in America. Important changes, however, took place in the Spanish Empire. Spain remained under its Bourbon ruler, and until the French Revolution the family alliance between France and Spain was one of the controlling facts in European affairs. But Austria obtained the **Spanish Netherlands** subject to the right of the Dutch to garrison what were known as the Barrier Fortresses (*see* **Plate 53**), together with the duchy of **Milan**, the kingdom of **Naples**, and the island of **Sardinia**; the Duke of Savoy obtained **Sicily**; England obtained **Minorca** and **Gibraltar**, which became the pillars of her naval power in the Mediterranean until Minorca was lost in 1783. Thus Spain lost the last of the European possessions of Charles V, and Austria was planted in the north and south of Italy, which she was henceforth to dominate.

These arrangements were substantially modified by the Treaty of London (1720), when **Sicily** was transferred to Austria and **Sardinia** to the Duke of Savoy, who now became King of Sardinia. In 1731 (Treaty of Vienna) Don Carlos, a prince of the Spanish Bourbon line, acquired the duchies of Parma and Piacenza, and the succession to Tuscany; and in 1738, after the Polish Succession War, Don Carlos became (Treaty of Vienna) King of **Naples and Sicily**, giving up his northern duchies to Austria. Thus a third Bourbon kingdom was planted in South Italy, while Austria was more firmly established in North Italy. By the same treaty the King of Sardinia obtained part of the duchy of Milan; his dominion was already the strongest State in Italy not under foreign control. The growth of the territories of the House of Savoy is shown in **Fig. X.**

Plate 61 thus shows the results of the complicated wars and diplomacy of the early eighteenth century, before the vital conflict between Prussia and Austria was opened in the Austrian Succession (1742–8) and Seven Years' (1756–63) Wars. The only other important change in Europe west of the Elbe which took place during this period was the acquisition from Sweden of the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden by **Hanover** (1730). This was at once a proof of the decline of Sweden and a step towards the clearing of Germany from foreign occupation.

Hanover, hitherto a State of minor importance, whose territories were constantly divided and redivided among various branches of the ruling family, became important in the eighteenth century owing to the succession of her ruler to the English crown (1714): she had been raised to the dignity of an electorate in 1712, and her lands were thereby made indivisible. The modern development of the State of Hanover (formerly Brunswick-Lüneburg) is shown in **Fig. XI.**

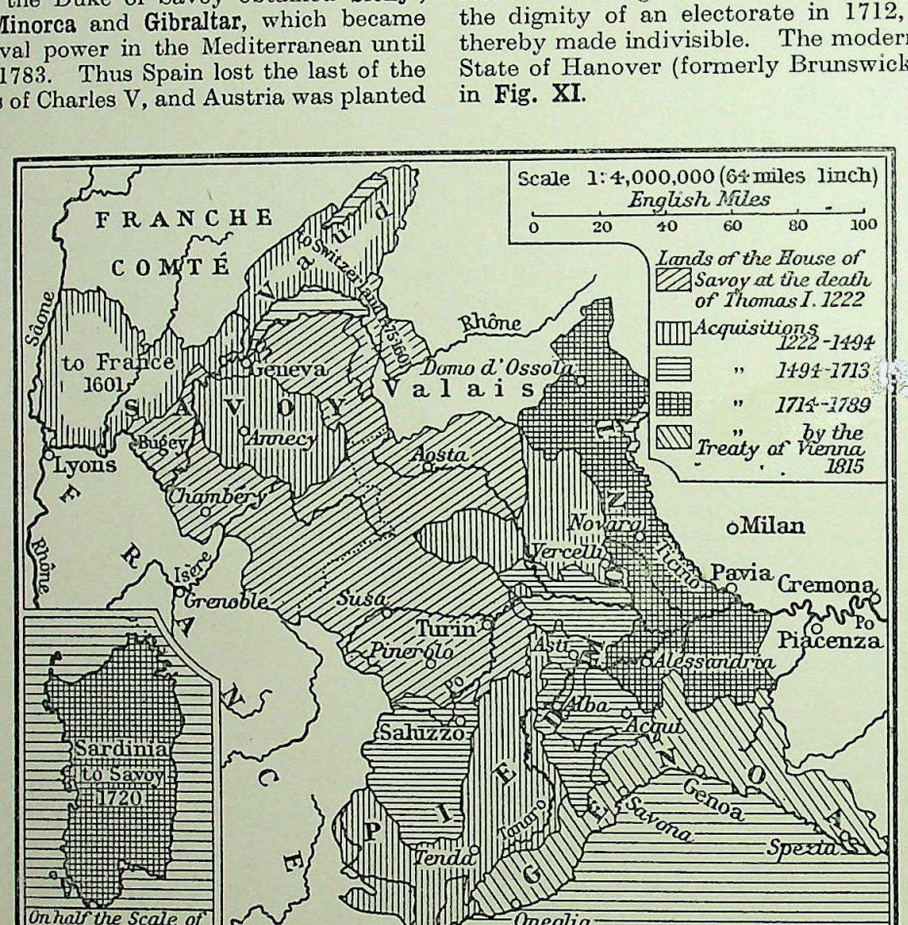

FIG. X.—LANDS OF THE HOUSE OF SAVOY TO 1815

CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE IN THE SEVENTEENTH AND EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES

Although it is the wars of the Western Powers which fill the greatest space in the books, the most remarkable territorial changes between the Wars of Religion and the French Revolution took place in Eastern Europe. These changes are illustrated by **Plates 56 and 57**, which face one another, and show the same area for the beginning (1667) and end (1795) of the period: with these maps should be studied **Plates 67*a*** for Brandenburg-Prussia, **40** for the Habsburg and Ottoman Empires, and **68** for Russia. In **Plate 56** three great Powers, Sweden, Poland, and the Ottoman Empire, are shown in 1667 extending across Europe from north to south; in **Plate 57** one of these, Poland, has wholly disappeared, while the other two have shrunk northwards and southwards respectively. At their expense three other Powers have greatly expanded—Prussia,

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Austria, and Russia ; the characters of these three Power, were profoundly affected by these changes, and their mutual relations were among the dominant factors of European diplomacy not only in the eighteenth but in the nineteenth century.

The first important change was the expulsion of the **Turks** from the major part of Hungary and Transylvania : this was the result of a series of wars between the Turks on the one hand and Austria and Poland on the other. Austria reaped all the advantage of these wars, and by the Peace of Carlowitz (1699) regained all Hungary except the Banat of Temesvar, together with Transylvania and the greater part of Croatia and Slavonia. A renewed war (1711–18) threatened to destroy the Turkish power in the Balkans, but ended only in the acquisition of Temesvar, which was permanent, and Northern Serbia. which was lost in 1739 (Treaty of Passarowitz, 1718). Meanwhile, Venice had for a moment occupied the Morea (1686–1715). In 1700 it seemed as if the Turkish power was doomed, and the Turk might have been driven out of Europe if the Spanish Succession War had not distracted his enemies.

The second great change was the downfall of **Sweden** from the high position to which she had been raised by Gustavus Adolphus. In a long and complicated series of wars (1699–1720) in which Charles XII of Sweden fought brilliantly against a shifting combination of foes—Russia, Prussia, Denmark, Hanover, and Poland—Sweden lost Bremen and Verden to Hanover, part of Swedish Pomerania to Prussia, and the Baltic provinces of Ingria, Esthonia, Livonia, and Carelia to Russia. The short chapter of Sweden's history as a Great Power was at an end.

The collapse of **Poland** was the most striking and tragic event of this period. Her anarchic condition had already led to the loss of a large slice of Russian territory in 1667 at the end of war in which Russia supported the Cossack subjects of Poland (Peace of Andrussof) ; but under her fighting king, John Sobieski, she showed a revival of vigour in the last two decades of the seventeenth century and played a great part in repelling the Turks. In the eighteenth century her elective monarchy became the plaything of warring factions and foreign influences, especially that of Russia. The War of the Polish Succession (1733–5) displayed her impotence, and her territorial integrity was only maintained by the protection of France and the jealousies of her neighbours. Finally these neighbours united to divide her territory in the three partitions of 1772, 1792, and 1795. These are indicated on **Plate 57**, and also (more clearly) on **Plate 68***c*. The lion's share fell to Russia, but most of her acquisitions were old Russian territories torn from her by Lithuania in the later Middle Ages ; the acquisitions of Prussia and Austria included in these States huge indigestible masses of Slavonic subjects. For a century and a half from the first partition the insurgent patriotism of the Poles continued to be one of the chief disturbing factors in European politics.

AUSTRIA

Of the three Powers which gained at the expense of the three decaying Powers, **Austria** (cf. **Plate 40***a* and p. 14 above) had now become an empire of varied and discordant peoples, Germans, Magyars, Czechs, Poles, Rumanians, Croats, and Serbs, held together only by a monarchy and an army, and incapable of being welded into a national State on the Western model. For this reason Austria played a diminishing part in German affairs ; the racial confusion of the Austrian Empire was henceforth its dominating feature, and made it everywhere the foe of nationalist movements (cf. **Plate 94–5**).

GROWTH OF PRUSSIA

The rise of **Prussia** is traced in detail in **Plate 67***a*. When she acquired by the partitions of Poland an area greater than all the rest of her territory, Prussia seemed to be in danger of becoming, like Austria, a predominantly non-German State. Her Polish acquisitions, like her earlier possession of East Prussia (from which she took her royal title), lay outside the limits of the Empire. But she had also acquired wide lands in Northern Germany under the Great Elector (1640–88), who acquired East Pomerania, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden ; under Frederick I (1688–1713 : first King of Prussia 1701), who acquired Lingen and Gelderland ; under Frederick William I (1713–40), who acquired West Pomerania ; and above all under Frederick the Great (1740–88), who, besides getting West Prussia by the first partition, tore the rich and now almost wholly German province of Silesia from Austria (1742) and also acquired East Friesland. Prussia thus had a strong and growing hold in North Germany, which was strengthened when the Hohenzollern lands of Ansbach and Bayreuth fell to her by inheritance in 1791 ; and she was therefore

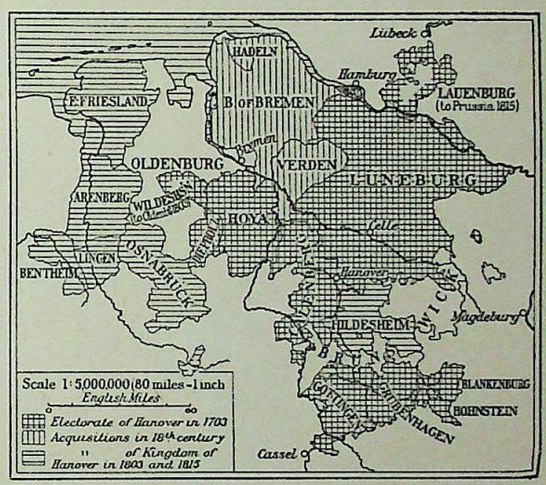

FIG. XI.—HANOVER IN THE XVIII AND XIX CENTURIES

able to compete with Austria for the leadership of Germany. Her steady rise, forming a nucleus for disunited Germany, is one of the main features of eighteenth-century history.

THE EMERGENCE OF RUSSIA

Russia during this period first began to play a considerable part in European affairs ; her advance was at the expense of all three decaying Powers. Her growth from the original principality of Moscow, which threw off the Tatar yoke in 1462, is shown in **Plate 68**. It was mainly due (1) to Peter the Great (1689–1725), whose principal gains were at the cost of Sweden, though he also began the attack on the Turks, which was later to be the main interest of Russian policy in Europe ; and (2) to Catherine the Great (1762–96), under whom the partitions of Poland were effected and the Turkish suzerainty over the Tatars on the north coast of the Black Sea was overthrown. From 1774 onwards the Turk had learnt to regard Russia as his main enemy, and the Balkan Christians to look to her as a protector, rather than to Austria : the rivalry of Russia and Austria for the inheritance of the Turk was thenceforward the main safeguard of the Ottoman Empire. The emergence of Russia as a great European Power was thus one of the outstanding facts of the eighteenth century : she had now gained contact with two European seas, the Baltic and the Black Sea ; but both were closed seas.

EUROPE IN THE TIME OF NAPOLEON

With the French Revolution and the conquests of Napoleon came the greatest upheaval in the political

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distribution of Europe which had been seen in the modern age. The course of the Revolution within France itself, and the earlier revolutionary wars on the French frontiers, should be followed in **Plate 60.** By 1795 France had achieved the Rhine frontier. By 1799 she dominated Holland and Italy. These were the foundations on which Napoleon built his power. **Plate 69** shows the territorial revolution at its height, in the year 1810, when the Napoleonic Empire reached its climax. The more sensational features of this redistribution, and notably the huge extension of the area under the direct control of the Paris government, were temporary, and it is unnecessary to trace their history in detail. But it is noteworthy that the changes were most sweeping in those countries—Germany, Italy, and Poland—where the national principle had failed to find reflection in the political organisation. Wherever the national principle was well established, even Napoleon did not venture to disregard it, and Spain, Portugal, Denmark, islands of Sicily and Sardinia remained beyond his control; he never asserted any authority over Sweden, though that country voluntarily chose the French Marshal Bernadotte as its king; and Portugal only momentarily fell into his hands, because its resistance was supported by British forces from the sea. France had fulfilled her age-long ambition of reaching the Rhine frontier as early as 1795, before Napoleon's power was established, incorporating the German territories west of the Rhine and the Austrian Netherlands (*see* **Plate 57**). All the other extensions of direct French rule were mostly late. They were a consequence of the trade-war against England, and were dictated by the need of keeping control of the coastlands through which British goods made their way into Europe. This was the case with Holland and with the coastlands of North Germany; it was the main motive for the annexation of Savoy and Piedmont (1801), Tuscany (1807), and the greater part of the Papal States (1809), and also for

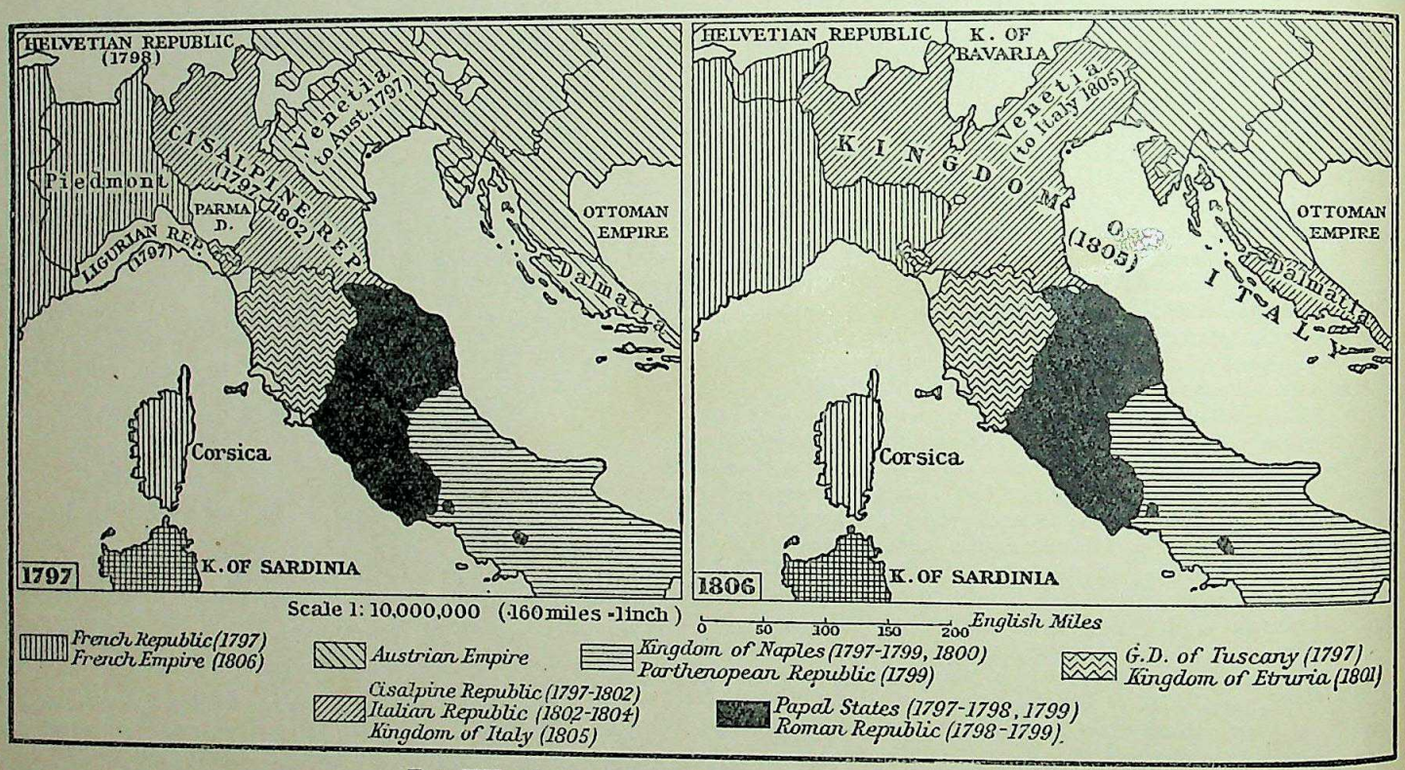

FIG. XII.—ITALY IN THE REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD

retained unaltered the limits which history had given to them. Even Holland retained its separate entity without change of boundaries until, in 1810, it was brought under direct French control as a means of enforcing the continental blockade against English goods; and Switzerland, though drastically reorganised, remained a distinct State. The establishment of a Kingdom of Italy, incomplete as it was and absolutely dependent upon the French Empire, was a recognition of the national principle. Two stages in Napoleon's reorganisation of Italy are shown in **Fig. XII**. Though these changes, unlike those made in Germany, were swept away in 1815, they prepared the way for the Italian nationalist movement of the nineteenth century. The restoration of a Polish Grand Duchy (made up of the territories taken by Prussia in the second and third partitions, together with the southern part of her annexations in the first partition and the whole area taken by Austria in the third partition) was a further recognition of the national idea. It is also noteworthy that Napoleon's redistribution everywhere stopped at the sea-coast: the the annexation of the Illyrian coast (1809), once controlled by Venice but, since 1797, in the hands of Austria. Everywhere these annexations, because they were a denial rather than an encouragement of the national principle, aroused resentment and hostility: the Napoleonic changes had no permanence except where they were in accord with national feeling.

NAPOLEON'S RECONSTRUCTION OF GERMANY

The most lasting part of Napoleon's territorial changes was in Germany, where it formed the foundation for the unification of the next century. The stages in this process are shown in **Plate 72**, *a* and *b*. The first map shows the changes made after the Treaty of Lunéville (1801), when a deputation from the States of the Empire (1802–3) re-arranged the map with a view to compensating the German princes who had lost territories west of the Rhine and elsewhere. The ecclesiastical States, most of the free cities, and many of the smallest secular

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principalities lost their independence and were annexed to their greater neighbours. The result was a marked simplification. The second map shows the still more drastic reconstruction which followed the defeat of Austria at Austerlitz and of Prussia at Jena. Both Austria and title "Emperor of Austria." The place of the Empire was taken by a Confederation of the Rhine, which at first included sixteen princes; it had a Federal Diet at Frankfurt, and was bound by treaty to subordinate its foreign policy to that of France. This was an anticipation of the

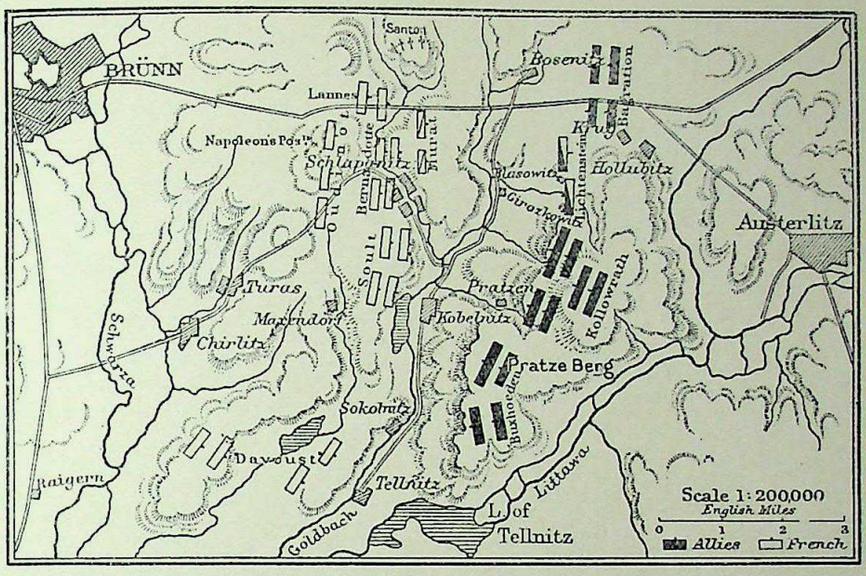

FIG. XIII.—THE BATTLE OF AUSTERLITZ, DECEMBER 2, 1805

Prussia lost their western territories, Prussia being thrust back behind the Elbe; the surviving petty principalities were "mediatised"; in Northern Germany two substantial new States emerged (the Grand Duchy of Berg and the Kingdom of Westphalia), while in the south Bavaria, future federal organisation of Germany, and to that extent a recognition of the national principle. It is notable that in all these changes there was no interference with the internal organisation of the Habsburg Empire. It lost its outlying territories and became less German than it

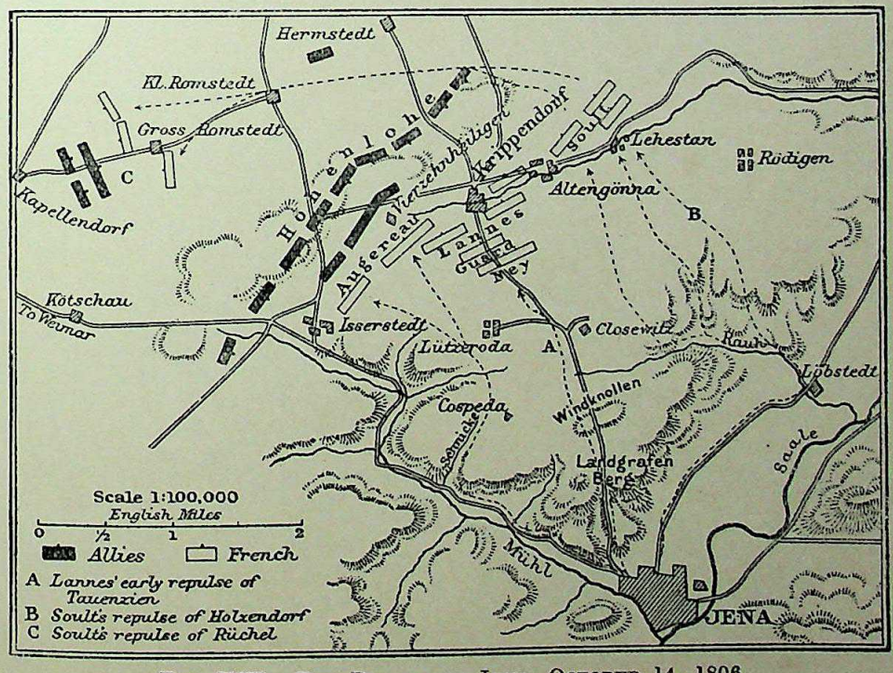

FIG. XIV.—THE BATTLE OF JENA, OCTOBER 14, 1806

Würtemberg, and Baden were unified and consolidated. These arrangements were materially changed at the end of the war; but the simplification which they had achieved was not undone. In 1806, also, the Holy Roman Empire came to an end, a thousand years after the coronation of Charlemagne; and the Emperor consoled himself by adopting the had been; it remained a bundle of discordant nationalities held together by a dynasty and an army. Prussia, on the other hand, though terribly reduced in extent (*see* **Plate 67***b*), was left as a continuous and consolidated State wherein a vigorous reconstruction could be, and was already being, effected.

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THE FIELDS OF WAR

The wars of the revolutionary and Napoleonic era may be followed in part upon the general maps, but also in embouchures of the principal passes. Note the strong strategic position of the Quadrilateral—the four fortresses of Peschiera, Mantua, Legnago and Verona, which dominated at once the lines of the Mincio and the Adige, and also

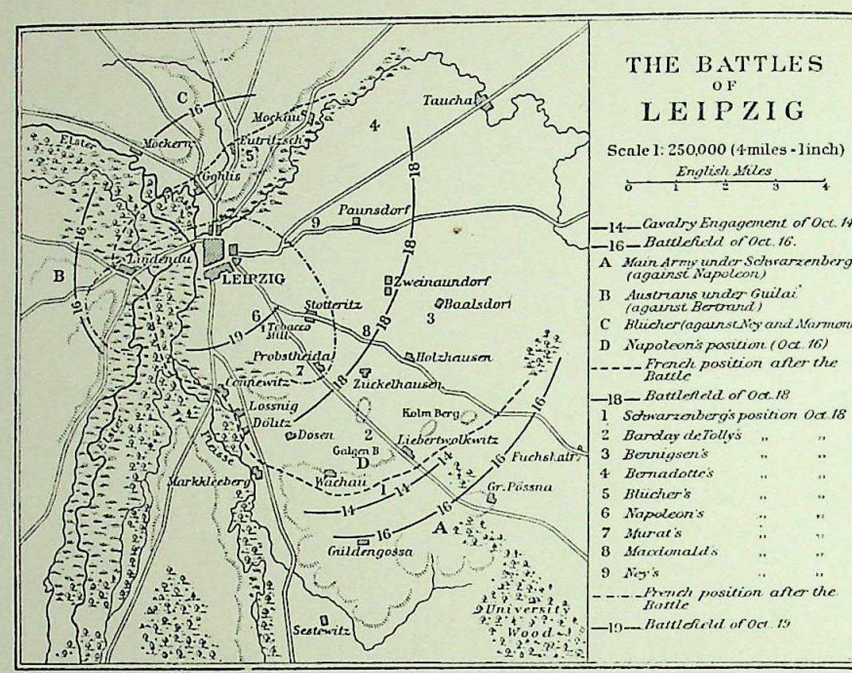

FIG. XV.—THE BATTLES OF LEIPZIG, OCTOBER 16–19, 1813

several special maps. **Plate 38***a* shows the Alpine barrier, with Southern Germany and Northern Italy, which were among the main fields of conflict. But this map is meant also to illustrate all the fighting in this area during the the outlet of the Brenner Pass, the easiest passage from Germany. **Plate 53** may be used for the frequent fighting in the Low Countries, and includes a detailed map of the Waterloo Campaign. **Plate 60** may be used for the fighting

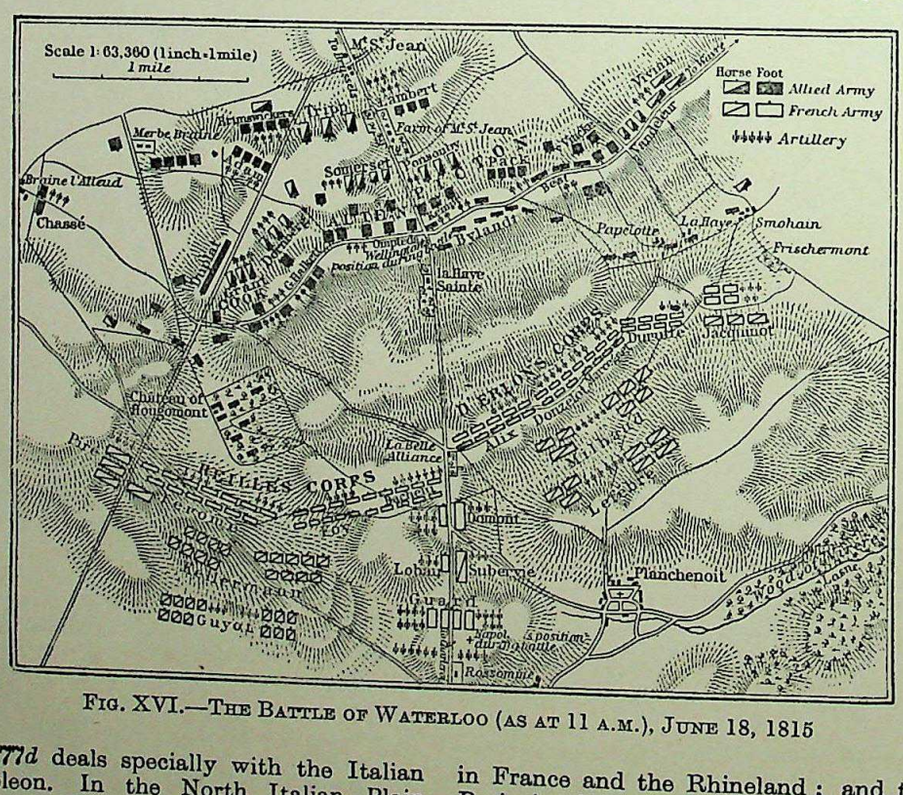

FIG. XVI.—THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO (AS AT 11 A.M.), JUNE 18, 1815

modern era. **Plate 77***d* deals specially with the Italian campaigns of Napoleon. In the North Italian Plain campaigning was always dominated (*a*) by the successive lines of rivers descending from the Alps and (*b*) by the in France and the Rhineland; and the **Inset**, 60*a*, shows Paris in the revolutionary period. Several of the more important battles of Napoleon are shown in **Figs. XIII–XVI.**

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SPAIN AND THE PENINSULAR WAR

Plate 70 illustrates the modern history of Spain and Portugal, but more especially the Peninsular War (1808–14), almost the only period at which the internal geography of the Iberian Peninsula has been of great importance to European history in the modern age. Since the union of Castile and Aragon and the conquest of Granada by Ferdinand and Isabella, the political geography of Spain has undergone no change: except for the loss of Cerdagne and Roussillon to France and of Gibraltar to England, its boundaries remain unchanged, nor have the limits of its provinces been altered. Portugal, indeed, was annexed by Philip II in 1580; but when it regained its independence in 1640 and the following years, its boundaries were unaltered. Hence the main utility of this map is to trace the course of campaigns in the Peninsula, notably in the Spanish Succession Wars and in the Peninsular War. The strategic position in Spain has always been dominated by the transverse mountain-ranges and river-valleys, and the scantiness of the roads. The practicable roads of 1808 are marked on the map. The **Inset 70***b* gives a study of the lines of Torres Vedras, which formed in 1810 the last citadel of resistance to Napoleon on the Continent of Europe.

EUROPE AFTER THE TREATY OF VIENNA

The reconstruction of Europe carried out by the Treaty of Vienna at the close of the Napoleonic Wars is shown in **Plate 71**. The reconstruction was dictated by a desire to return to the old regime, qualified by the ambitions of the dominant Powers and the claims of those minor princes, especially in Germany, who had at the end turned against Napoleon. **France** was left substantially with the boundaries she had attained in 1789, including so recent an acquisition as Lorraine (1766). The boundaries of **Spain** and **Portugal** were left undisturbed. **Russia** retained Finland, which she had conquered in 1810; and the reconstructed **Poland**, less the district of Posen which was restored to Prussia, was linked with the Russian Crown as a separate State with privileges guaranteed by the treaty—some deference being thus paid to the principle of nationality. **Sweden**, as a reward for the desertion of Napoleon by Bernadotte, was compensated for the loss of Finland by the annexation of Norway, which had been attached to Denmark since 1397. **Holland** and **Belgium** were united as the Kingdom of the Netherlands under the House of Orange: this was the State which William the Silent nearly established after the revolt of the Netherlands; it was now intended as a barrier against France; but a distinct national feeling had grown up in Belgium, especially during the revolutionary period, and the arrangement was to last only for fifteen years. The **Ottoman Empire** was left undisturbed, save that Russia retained Bessarabia, conquered in 1812. But the main re-arrangements were made in Germany and Italy, so long, through their disunity, the prey of Europe. In **Germany** the main governing factor was the rivalry of Austria and Prussia, the latter supported by Russia. **Prussia**, having given up to Russia the major part of her claims in Poland, demanded compensation in Western Germany: the scale on which she obtained it is shown in **Plate 67***b*. She obtained not only all her old territories east of the Elbe, of which she had been stripped by Napoleon (cf. **67***a* with **67***b*), but also Lausitz or Lusatia, taken from Saxony; the great province of Westphalia; and the major part of the recovered German territory west of the Rhine. These acquisitions at once enabled her to dominate Northern Germany and made her the next neighbour of France and the bulwark against any revived French aggression. Hanover received some accession of territory, thanks to the influence of England. In the centre and south the enlarged Napoleonic States of the Hessen, Baden, Würtemberg, and Bavaria retained their consolidated power, save that Bavaria regained, in a more solid block, the Palatinate west of the Rhine, restoring the Tyrol to Austria. There was thus no attempt to return to the chaos of pre-revolutionary Germany, and though some minor States survived, such as Anhalt, Oldenburg, Waldeck, and the little Saxon duchies, the total number of States in Germany was reduced to 26 as against the 360 of the pre-revolutionary period. A semblance of national unity was given to the whole group by the establishment of the Germanic Confederation (*see* **Plate 72***c*) in place of the Confederation of the Rhine, but it was an obstructive rather than a constructive body, bound to be dominated by the rivalry of Austria and Prussia, both of which had large territories that were outside the Confederation as they had earlier been outside the Empire. Austria, however, was more out than in, Prussia more in than out.

Austria made no attempt to regain her scattered western territories, preferring to keep her dominions in a solid continuous block. By giving up the old Austrian Netherlands she ceased to be a neighbour of France, and thus resigned to Prussia the leadership of Germany in that secular conflict. She sought her compensation partly in the re-acquisition of Dalmatia and Istria, which she had taken from Venice in 1797, and which increased her Slavonic subjects; partly by the annexation of the greater part of the North Italian Plain, Lombardy and Venetia, and by the planting of vassal princelets in the restored Italian duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Modena. She thus obtained a dominating position in Italy, and became the inevitable foe of the Italian national movement.

The reorganisation of **Italy** was the worst feature of the whole settlement (*see* **Plate 39***c*). Besides the establishment of Austrian power, the old Bourbon monarchy was restored in Naples, and the Papal States were re-established in the centre of the peninsula. In the north-west the kingdom of Sardinia not only regained Savoy and Piedmont, its old dominions, but was also enlarged by the acquisition of part of Eastern Lombardy, and of the territory of the former republic of Genoa. In view of the future this strengthening of the only purely Italian dynasty in Italy was doubtless a good thing, but it involved the disappearance of the last of the city republics. In the Mediterranean the naval supremacy of England was recognised by her retention of Gibraltar, Malta (conquered 1800), and the Ionian Islands (conquered 1810). Except where national aspirations had been respected or satisfied, every detail of the Vienna settlement of Europe was to be recast during the next 105 years; and the remaining maps of the series dealing with Europe record this process.

EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

In regard to changes in political geography, the century from 1815 to 1914 falls into three unequal but clearly marked sections. In the first, 1815 to 1852, there were many revolutionary movements, but no important wars and only two significant changes of boundary. The first was the establishment of **Greek** independence (1829) under the joint protection of England, France, and Prussia; this was the first inroad upon the integrity of the Ottoman Empire in Europe. The second was the revolt of **Belgium** against Holland (1830), recognised and guaranteed by the Powers in a treaty of 1832, and by the Powers and Holland in 1839. During the same period (1831) the separate constitutional system promised to **Poland** in 1815 was destroyed by Russia. But apart from these changes, the revolutions of 1820, 1830, and 1848, though the last turned Europe for a time upside-down, brought about no territorial change. No special map, therefore, is shown for this period.

In 1854 the Crimean War (*see* **Plate 68***b*) opened a very

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different period of great wars, which lasted until 1878 and left deep traces on the map. The Crimean War itself brought about no direct territorial changes; but the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia were guaranteed their independence under the joint protection of the Great Powers (1856), and in 1862 the two provinces were united as the principality of **Rumania** with a single prince and legislative Assembly. Though Rumania still owed a purely nominal suzerainty to the Sultan of Turkey, this may be described as the second breach in the integrity of the Ottoman Empire. In 1859 France supported Sardinia in the Italian war of independence (*see* **Plate 39***c*); by the Treaty of Villafranca (1859) Austria ceded Lombardy to Sardinia; in the next year (1860) the duchies of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany drove out their dukes and voted for incorporation with the rest; all the Papal States except the country round Rome were annexed with the enthusiastic support of their inhabitants; and the daring campaign of Garibaldi added the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. The kingdom of **Italy**, lacking only Venetia and Rome, thus came into being, with its temporary capital at Florence; and an organised disunity which had lasted since the sixth century was brought almost to an end. The unification of Italy is illustrated by **Plate 39***c*.

In 1864 **Denmark**, attacked by both Austria and Prussia, was forced to yield the German duchy of Holstein and the half-German duchy of Schleswig (*see* **Plate 72***f*), which after a temporary joint occupation passed into the sole control of Prussia. In 1866 Prussia forced war upon Austria on this issue; most of the German States took the side of Austria; and this enabled Prussia (**Plate 67***b*) to annex Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the old imperial capital of Frankfurt. At the same time the futile Germanic Confederation was brought to an end, and replaced by a North German Confederation (**Plate 72***e*), effectively controlled by Prussia; while Italy, which had allied itself with Prussia, was rewarded with Venetia. In 1870 the Franco-Prussian War united the South German States with the North German Confederation against France; and after a disastrous war, the field of which is shown in **Plate 84***b*, Alsace (which had been French since 1648) and the greater part of Lorraine (French since 1766) were transferred to the new German Empire, which had been organised during the war, with the King of Prussia as its Emperor. Again Italy used the opportunity of war, and annexed Rome, which had been under the protection of France (1870): the unification of Germany and the completion of the unification of Italy went hand in hand. These events, which within a dozen years (1859–71) brought to an end the age-long disunity of Germany and Italy, were the most momentous of the nineteenth century.

UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

The unification of Germany, after six centuries of impotence in disintegration, is illustrated by **Plates 67***b* **and 72**. **Plate 72**, *a* and *b*, shows the simplification carried out by Napoleon (above, p. 21), and in particular the disappearance of the ecclesiastical States. **Plate 72***c* shows the organisation of the German Confederation in 1815, and the extent to which it was dominated by the two great rivals, Austria and Prussia: until their rivalry could somehow be overcome, effective consolidation was impossible; the revolution of 1848 failed to achieve it, and it was thereafter apparent that real German unity involved (*a*) the exclusion of the Austrian Empire, with its predominantly non-German population, from the Confederation, and (*b*) the transformation of the Confederation into a Federal State—the change from a Staatenbund to a Bundesstaat. **Plate 72***d* shows how Prussia strove to combine the other German States with herself by commercial ties, in a Zollverein or Customs Union which she controlled, and from which Austria was excluded. **Plate 72***f* shows the area of Schleswig-Holstein, and the field of the brief Danish War, which Prussia used as a means of stimulating national feeling in Germany, and from which she reaped a substantial accession of territory, important because it controlled useful seaports and the area of the future Kiel Canal. The Austro-Prussian War of 1866 may be followed in **Plate 67***b*. Despite all that Prussia had done, this was a civil war, in which most of the German States took the side of Austria. Consequently Prussia was able to make very large annexations, which are shown in **Plate 67***b*, and which enabled her completely to dominate Northern Germany. The Franco-German War, into which Prussia next led the German States, may be followed in **Plate 84***b*. The small key-map, **Plate 72***e*, shows the resultant German Empire, organised after this war, and indicates the completeness with which Prussia dominated the Empire.

THE BALKAN STATES

The last group of changes effected during this strenuous period were caused by the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–8, which was brought on by Turkish misgovernment of the Christian peoples of the Balkans, notably the Bulgarians. **Plate 86** illustrates this war, in which Turkey was beaten to her knees, and shows (*a*) the terms which Russia imposed upon Turkey in the Treaty of San Stefano (1878), and (*b*) the modification of these terms which Russia was persuaded to accept by the Congress of Berlin, 1878. The Russian terms would have turned Bulgaria into a State of considerable size, including Macedonia and having an important outlet in the Ægean; while they would also have given independence, but only a slight increase of territory, to the little State of Serbia, which Russia regarded as being under Austrian influence. The Congress of Berlin drastically revised these arrangements. **Serbia** became an independent kingdom, with some increase of territory on the Bulgarian side. **Greece** was enlarged by the addition of Thessaly. **Bulgaria**, greatly reduced in size, was divided into two principalities (Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia), both left under the nominal suzerainty of Turkey. **Rumania**, now an independent kingdom, had to cede to Russia the southern portion of Bessarabia which had been allotted to her in 1856, but received in exchange the Dobruja, south of the Danube mouth. The provinces of **Bosnia and Herzegovina** were placed under Austrian administration, though still nominally part of the Turkish Empire. **Turkey** was left in control of Thrace, Macedonia, Albania, and the greater Greek islands of the Eastern and Northern Ægean. This unsatisfactory solution of the Balkan problem was a fruitful source of difficulty during the next thirty years.

Plate 85 shows the general effects upon political geography of the changes which had taken place between 1815 and 1881, and especially between 1859 and 1881. Most of the arrangements of 1815 had now been reversed.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Meanwhile Europe was rapidly undergoing an economic transformation, more important because more profound than any merely political changes. The Industrial Revolution, having begun in England (**Plate 74**), was spreading to Europe. This change, so far as it can be shown by maps, is illustrated by the two maps on **Plate 90**, which is printed in significant apposition to the two maps of the United States for the same dates. In Europe the process of industrialisation began, on any large scale, about 1840, and may be measured by the growth of railways, the development of coal- and iron-fields, and the increase of urban population. These facts are brought out on the maps, as clearly as cartographical symbols can render them, for the two dates 1860 and 1927. But it was only after

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1870, when the period of nationalist wars was at an end, that the change became feverish in its rapidity. Thenceforth, in a higher degree than before, economic rather than purely political questions increasingly dominated the relations of States, and the importance of territory was measured by whether it contained coal and iron, or other sources of industrial wealth : this gave a new point to the question of the destiny of Alsace and Lorraine. At the same time the need of the new industry for raw materials and markets gave a new intensity to the competition for oversea possessions, which formed the chief concern of the last quarter of the nineteenth century, and which will be treated in Section III of this Introduction.

EUROPE IN 1914

Between 1878 and the outbreak of the Great War territorial questions within Europe therefore ceased to weigh very greatly in European politics, except in the still-vexed south-east, which was untouched by industrialism or by ambitions of extra-European expansion. Apart from the Balkans, the only territorial change shown in **Plate 93**, which depicts Europe in 1914, was the severance of **Norway** from Sweden (1905). This change, which destroyed one of the few undisturbed arrangements of 1815, was brought about so peacefully that it caused scarcely a ripple : an evidence of the change in the balance of importance from the political to the economic scale. In the Balkans, however, there was continual unrest owing to the unsatisfied national ambitions of the Balkan States ; and this unrest spread, in some degree, into the Austrian Empire, where peoples akin to the Serbs and Rumanians were controlled by the Germans and the Magyars.

In 1885 Bulgaria defied the Powers by uniting with Eastern Rumelia, and successfully repelled an attack by Serbia ; thereafter Bulgaria was a practically independent State. In 1897 there was a revolt in Crete, which demanded incorporation with Greece ; and the Greeks started a futile war with Turkey, in which they were sharply defeated. There was constant disturbance in Macedonia. The Powers used every effort to keep the boiling pot quiet, and prevented any actual territorial change. But when in 1908 the Young Turks deposed Abdul-Hamid, a new ferment began. Bulgaria declared her independence and assumed the royal title. Greece flouted the Powers by incorporating Crete. Austria announced the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which she had been administering since 1881. Serbia, thus denied union with her race-fellows of Bosnia, almost went to war against Austria, who also contemplated her destruction. In 1912 the discontented States drew together in the Balkan League and attacked and overthrew Turkey ; but they quarrelled over the division of their conquests, and a second Balkan War broke out, in which Bulgaria was ranged against Serbia and Greece, with Rumania intervening. The outcome of these two Balkan Wars was the redistribution of the Peninsula shown in **Plate 93**. Serbia received a large southern extension of territory ; Greece obtained Salonika, most of the northern shore of the Ægean, and some of the islands ; Albania became an independent principality ; but Bulgaria, who had played the chief part in defeating the Turks, was left with a very small extension of territory, while the Turkish dominions in Europe were reduced to Thrace. These changes were only a sort of preamble to the Great War, which broke out upon a Balkan issue in 1914, though its deeper causes were of far wider range.

THE GREAT WAR AND THE PEACE SETTLEMENT

The fields of fighting in the Great War are shown in **Plates 92 and 96**. The results are indicated in the double-page map, **Plate 94–5**, which shows the pre-war and post-war boundaries of Europe superimposed upon an indication of the linguistic divisions of the continent. Language is no sure test of race, but it is a rough guide to nationality, since the sense of affinity which is the essence of national feeling rests very largely upon a common speech. The governing aim of the peace settlements was to make political boundaries correspond with national or linguistic divisions, thus completing the process by which the political geography of Europe has been mainly determined.

The settlement of 1919 has been criticised on the ground that it laid too exclusive stress upon this factor, to the neglect of the economic factors, now more important than ever. But in view of the evidence, which this series of maps abundantly displays, that national lines of division, once fixed, are extremely stable, it is reasonable to hope that there may be some approach to finality in a distribution based upon this principle. In several instances, where there was doubt, a plebiscite was arranged to ascertain local desires. In some cases (e.g. in the Balkans, in Hungary, in the Tyrol, and on the eastern frontier of Germany) anger against a defeated enemy may have distorted the decision, but on the whole **Plate 94–5** shows that a serious attempt was made to adhere closely to the national principle, interpreted on the basis of language. Accordingly the changes in boundaries are least where the national principle had already triumphed. France regained only Alsace and Lorraine, taken from her in 1870 ; she desired, but was unable to secure, a separation of the Rhineland from Germany. Belgium obtained only minute rectifications of frontier at Malmédy and Eupen. Northern Schleswig was awarded (under a plebiscite) to Denmark, which had taken no part in the war. On the east Germany lost the least Germanised portion of West Prussia (taken from Poland in 1772, *see* **Plate 67**), the province of Posen (taken from Poland in 1792), and (under a plebiscite) the south-eastern part of Silesia, which, though it had been incorporated in Germany since the fourteenth century, still spoke Polish. Italy, again, acquired only the district of Trent and that of Trieste : the principal allies thus made very small territorial gains in Europe.

The main feature of the peace settlement was the reconstruction of Eastern and South-eastern Europe upon national or linguistic lines. The composite Habsburg Empire was broken into its component parts ; and the disorganisation of Russia made it possible to deal with the greater part of the territory conquered by her since Peter the Great. Bohemia and Moravia, which had been under the Habsburg monarchy since 1526, became an independent State ; with them was linked the linguistically kindred country of the Slovaks, which had never in historical times been politically united with them, and the combination was given the new name of **Czechoslovakia**. **Rumania**, a State only created in the nineteenth century, was increased to the size of one of the major European States by the annexation of Transylvania, Bukovina, and Bessarabia : the common possession of a Latin tongue inherited from Trajan's colonists in Dacia (**Plate 2–3**) was the only link which united the major part of the population of this wide area. Serbia grew into **Yugoslavia** by the annexation of Montenegro, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Dalmatia, together with the former Austrian provinces of Slavonia, Croatia, and Carniola —a State wider than Stephen Dushan's empire at its greatest (cf. **Plate 29**) ; its parts had never before been united and were linked only by kinship of tongue, but divided by religious and economic differences. The old historic State of **Hungary** shrank to the limits within which the Magyar tongue was predominant ; while **Austria**, with the Tyrol, remained as a small German State, cut off from the wide lands of which it had been the administrative and economic centre, but forbidden to unite with Germany, to which it was linked both by language and tradition. **Poland**—wiped off the map in 1772–95 (**Plate 67**)—emerged

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from this reconstruction with almost the extent of territory of her greatest days; her former partner, **Lithuania**, reappeared as an independent State; farther north two small peoples, who had never in history enjoyed separate statehood save as part of the territories of the Teutonic Knights (**Plate 33**), emerged as the States of **Esthonia** and **Latvia**; and **Finland** also emerged for the first time as an independent State. Such a sweeping reconstruction upon linguistic lines has no parallel in history. Time will show whether the basis thus provided is firm enough to compensate for the disregard of economic considerations involved in the creation of tariff barriers on all the new frontiers, the severance of the parts of the old Austrian Empire from Vienna, which had grown to be its centre of communications and trade, and the partition of so clearly defined an economic area as the Silesian coal-field; or whether the machinery of the League of Nations will avail to overcome these difficulties. In any case, the lines of linguistic cleavages are not in all cases quite clear; and a study of **Plate 93** will reveal many instances, especially in the east and south-east, where substantial alien blocks are embedded in the new States. The political development of Europe, as traced in this series of maps, has been very largely governed by the national principle, operating for the most part unconsciously. It ends with a completely logical application of this principle, rigidly defined in terms of language, though, as the case of Switzerland shows, language and nationality are not always identical.

SECTION II

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE BRITISH ISLES

GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS

THE history of the British Isles, and the part which their peoples have played in the world, have been determined by their geographical position. The governing event in their history was the melting of the polar ice-cap, at the end of the glacial era, which caused the seas to rise, and separated these islands from Europe. **Plate 10**, which illustrates the relation of the islands to Europe, shows the shallowness of the surrounding seas: if they were to sink only 200 feet, England would be united with Europe, and the Thames would be a tributary of the Rhine. Because of this physical event, the islands have always been of, but not in, Europe. They have received streams of immigrants from the chief European stocks, and have been subject to all the influences of European civilisation, but they have been able, in the main, to live their own life apart, and to develop their own distinctive institutions. Since the eleventh century, which may be taken as the close of the race-movements whereby the islands were peopled, Britain, alone among European countries, has never been subject to any serious foreign invasion, and Ireland has almost been confined to dealings with her sister-island.

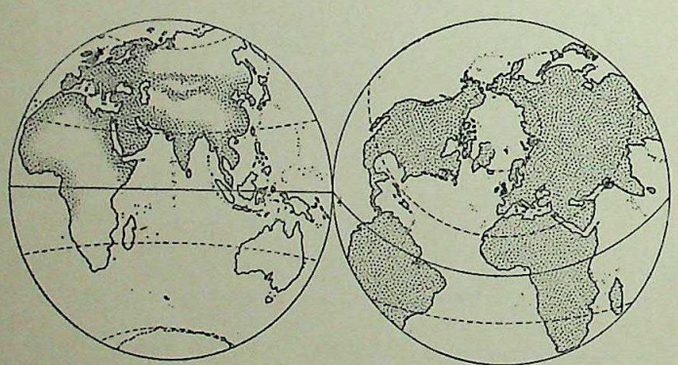

FIG. XVII.—BRITAIN BEFORE AND AFTER THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

The insular character of British history was emphasised by the fact that until the Great Discoveries the islands lay upon the outermost verge of the civilised world, and therefore could not be in the main stream of its history. The Great Discoveries completely changed the geographical position and outlook of the islands. They were now (*see* **Fig. XVII**) at the centre of the land-hemisphere of the world as it had been disclosed; they lay at almost the nodal point of the sea-roads by which the world was now linked. Hence British history falls into two clearly marked sections. Down to the sixteenth century its main interest is that of internal development; and, apart from quarrels with its nearest continental neighbour, France, Britain counts for little in the common history of civilisation. From the sixteenth century downwards it plays an increasingly important part in world-affairs, but more in the non-European world than in Europe. It wins the mastery of the seas; it becomes great in commerce and, later, in industry; it takes the lead in developing and peopling the outer world. And because of its growing wealth and power, and the success of its colonial methods (which were shaped by its social and political habits), its

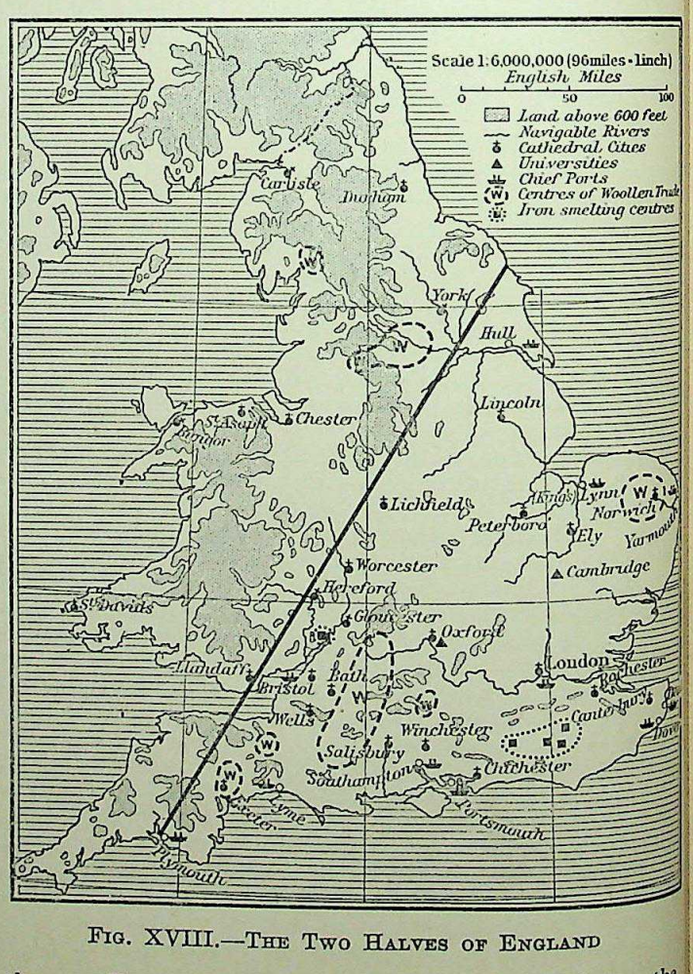

FIG. XVIII.—THE TWO HALVES OF ENGLAND

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institutions, developed during the earlier centuries of obscurity, won a growing influence among the European peoples. The comparative isolation of the earlier period of British history, and the preponderant concern of the later period with oversea developments, make it appropriate to treat British history in a separate section of this Introduction, as a sort of link between the Shaping of Europe (dealt with in the last section) and the Expansion of Europe (dealt with in the next).

Another important geographical fact may be brought out by a study of **Plate 10**. The south-eastern part of Britain slopes, and looks, towards continental Europe; the north and west, including Wales and Scotland, is mountainous and relatively barren, and its back is turned upon the sources of Western civilisation, from which it also shuts off Ireland. Draw a line (*see* **Fig. XVIII**) diagonally across England, from Plymouth to the mouth of the Wye, and thence directly to Scarborough. To the south and east of this line lie all the richest farm-lands, all the navigable rivers, the universities, nearly all the cathedrals, and the areas of the early woollen industry before the Industrial Revolution; here also were most of the Roman roads, and most of the later roads, again before the Industrial Revolution (*see* **Fig. XIX**). This was the field of the real history of England during the first long period of isolation; this was the centre of civilisation; hence sprang nine-tenths of the men, born before 1800, whose names find a place in the *Dictionary of National Biography*. The heart of this area is London, which has access to a very large part of it by the navigable stream of the Thames, and upon which all roads have converged ever since the time of the Romans, because it was the lowest crossing-place of the great river on the road to or from the Continent. The Thames is, indeed, the river of English history, and the places on its banks mark the stages in the career of many a great Englishman in the earlier eras of English history: Eton; Oxford; the Temple, or the City, or Chatham, or Sheerness; Westminster; a summons to Windsor; and finally the Abbey.

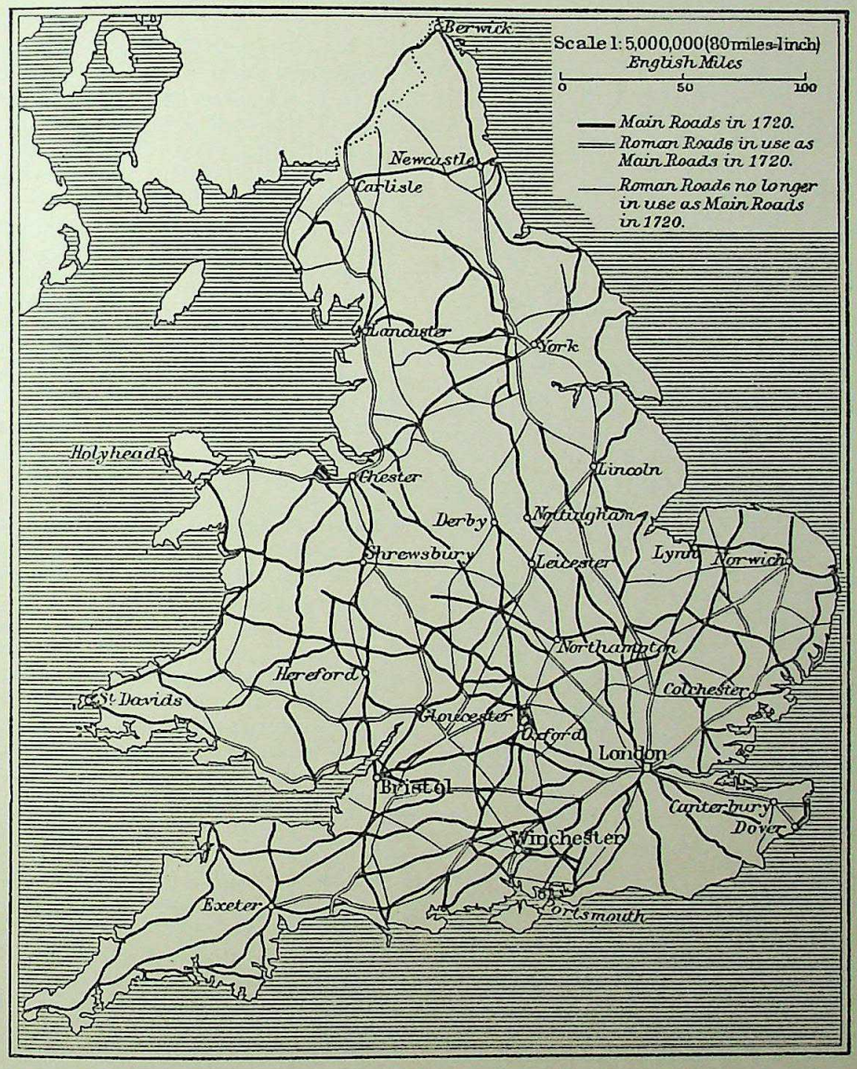

FIG. XIX.—ENGLISH MAIN ROADS BEFORE THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

But to the north and west of our imaginary line lie all the rough hill-country: the backward lands of Wales and Scotland; the regions of England for which the Tudor kings found it necessary to set up special jurisdictions (*see* **Fig. XXV**). It was not until the nation as a whole slowly began, after the Great Discoveries, to turn its mind westward rather than eastward, that these regions became important; and when they were found to contain the coal and iron which are the foundations of modern industry, there was a rapid reversal. But the contrast between these areas runs through English history. The Romans civilised the south and east, but only militarised the north and west; the English invaders conquered the south and east, but only a part of the north and west; feudalism was

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brought to heel in the south and east, but remained powerful in the north and west; the Protestant Reformation won the south and east first; Parliament had its strength in the south and east, Charles I in the north and west. And the same contrast, changed now in character, can be seen in the classified returns of modern elections.

PRE-ROMAN AND ROMAN BRITAIN

Little is definitely known about the history of the Celtic-speaking tribes whom the Romans found in Britain. The evidence from skull-formation is summarised on **Plate 1**. Two, and perhaps three, different linguistic groups can be distinguished (*see* **Plate 10**): the Gaels in Northern Scotland and Ireland; the Britons in Southern Britain; perhaps the Belgæ in the south should be distinguished from the Britons. **Plate 5** shows the distribution of the tribes known to the Romans. It also shows the extensive forests and marshes by which the country was broken up, and which served later to separate the Anglo-Saxon tribes from one another; it was only by a gradual process that the country was deforested during the Middle Ages. The Roman roads, which are indicated on the map, helped to overcome these obstacles, and were the most permanent contribution of the Romans to the organisation of the country. Considering the high development of Roman civilisation, we know curiously little about the condition of England and Southern Scotland during the four centuries of the Roman occupation (A.D. 43–410). The province was divided, in the later part of the period, into four districts, known as Prima, Secunda, Flavia Cæsariensis, and Maxima; but their boundaries are unknown and are therefore not indicated. It was garrisoned by three legions, the Sixth stationed at Eburacum (York), the Twentieth at Deva (Chester), and the Second at Isca (Caerleon); there was also a large force of auxiliary troops, mainly drawn from Germany, on the Wall and the roads leading to it: the district between the Humber and the Tyne was almost given up to them, and was therefore largely peopled by Germans even before the Anglo-Saxon invasion. In the fourth century there were nine forts along the "Saxon shore" (from the Wash to the Solent) to guard against Saxon pirates. There were many small Romanised towns in the south and east, but only a few obtained formal municipal rank—Camulodunum (Colchester), Glevum (Gloucester), Lindum (Lincoln), and Eburacum (York), which ranked as *coloniæ*, with Verulamium (St. Albans), a *municipium*.

THE ANGLO-SAXON INVASIONS

With the withdrawal of the Romans in 410 the country lay open for the German invaders, who already knew the way thither both as recruits and as raiders. **Plate 10** indicates the regions from which these invaders are supposed to have come, and the directions they are supposed to have followed. But no precision on these points is attainable. Nor have we any precise or trustworthy knowledge of the course of the conquest during its first two centuries. Did the invaders come in large organised armies, or in small and scattered bands? Did they displace the existing inhabitants, or merely enslave them? Did they utilise the Roman agricultural system, worked by serfs, or introduce a system of their own? On all these questions it is still possible for scholars to take opposite views. All that we can safely say in definite terms can be summarised in a few sentences. (1) The process of conquest did not begin until thirty years after the Romans left; it was toilsome and slow; and the Romanised Britons offered a fierce resistance, unlike the Roman provincials on the Continent. The gradualness of the conquest is indicated in the first of the four maps on **Plate 11**: thus the little British kingdom of Elmet in South Yorkshire retained its independence until a late date. (2) Whether the first attacks were made by organised hosts or not, in the seventh century there was a large number of small, shifting tribal kingdoms, in regard to some of which it is impossible to say whether they were ever fully independent or not. No definite boundaries at any fixed date can be given for these tribes, but the names of the chief among them are given in **Plate 11***a*. Perhaps the best indication of these divisions is afforded by the map of the Anglo-Saxon dioceses (**Plate 44***a*): these divisions, made by Theodore of Tarsus at the end of the seventh century, almost certainly corresponded with tribal divisions, though at that date the sub-kingdoms (e.g.) of Mercia had been brought under a single control. The dioceses of Lindisfarne and Hexham correspond with the Bernicians; that of York with the Deirans; that of Sidnacester with the Lindiswara and Gainas; that of Lichfield with the Mercians or Marchmen; that of Leicester with the Middle Angles and the Gyrwas; that of Dorchester with the South Angles; that of Worcester with the Hwiccas; that of Hereford with the Magesætas; that of Sherborne with the later conquests of the West Saxons; that of Winchester with the true West Saxon realm, together with Surrey, which may once have been a separate kingdom; that of Selsey with the South Saxons; those of Canterbury and Rochester with the two sections of Kent which at one time formed two tribal States and are still represented by the distinction between Kentishmen and Men of Kent; that of London with the East and Middle Saxons; those of Elmham and Dunwich with the North and South Folk of the East Angles. But there were other tribes besides these, some of which seem long to have survived as sub-kingdoms. (3) The invaders allowed the Roman towns to fall into ruins; they brought the country, largely Christianised in the Roman period, back to paganism, and it had to be reconverted by Roman and Celtic missionaries in the sixth and seventh centuries; and they imposed their own language upon all the regions which they conquered. These are the main reasons for the view that they destroyed or expelled the previous inhabitants and repopulated the country, but they are not conclusive reasons. Probably the lower classes under the Romans were pagan; and the rapidity of the conversion, once it began, suggests that there was something to work on. As for language, that is readily changed: Devon, which was only conquered in the ninth century, Cumbria, which was never settled by the Angles, and Scottish Strathclyde, which was also never settled, have spoken English so long that there is no memory of their Celtic origins.

By the beginning of the eighth century most of the small tribal States had coalesced into three big kingdoms, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex (*see* **Plate 11***b*), but some of the minor kingdoms frequently changed their allegiance. Of these three, Wessex seems to have been the most and Mercia the least consolidated. Their rivalries filled the century, but were ended by the victory of Wessex in 825, and a kingdom of all England made its first appearance in history. But West Wales (Cornwall), Wales proper, and Cumbria and Strathclyde still remained Celtic; and even within England the distinction between the old kingdoms still survived, and continued to survive until they were welded by the hammer of the Norman Conquest.

THE DANISH INVASIONS

The victory of Wessex was immediately followed by the Danish and Norse invasions, which swept over the greater part of the country and were only checked by Wessex under Alfred. What made their victories so easy was the purely local patriotism of the little local sub-kingdoms, which would not combine for defence. Danish realms were established in Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia. The Danish conquests obliterated old divisions, but they created new ones, and the "Danelaw" remained a dis-

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tinct region with its own customs down to the Norman Conquest. Alfred, in 878, had to accept this division in the Treaty of Wedmore (*see* **Plate 11***c*), which gave him half of Mercia; but it remained "Mercia," under a separate earldorman with almost royal rights.

Alfred's successors reconquered the wide Danish lands, and again unified England. They especially reorganised Mercia, carving it into shires of fairly equal size, each named after its central fortress-town. The equal-sized counties of the Midlands, named after their capitals, should be compared with the tribal counties of the East and South-east (Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Sussex, Surrey, Kent), which represent old kingdoms, and the counties of the North, which are mostly of Norman or later origin. Wessex seems to have been already "shired" before the Danish invasions. The division of the country into administrative units each under a royal officer known as a shire-reeve or sheriff was a step towards the systematic organisation of government. But the old kingdom-units did not disappear. They survived as great ealdormanries or earldoms—under Alfred's later successors, during the second period of Danish power under Canute and his sons, and in the reign of Edward the Confessor: the earldoms of that reign, on the eve of the Norman Conquest (*see* **Plate 11***d*), still represent the old kingdoms, and until these divisions were obliterated, England had not obtained national unity.

This disunity, it appeared, could only be overcome by the pressure of foreign conquest. Canute the Dane attempted it (*see* **Plate 17**) with the aid of the power he drew from Denmark and Norway, but he failed. The old divisions became as sharp as ever after his death. The unifying and constructive force had to come from another side: from the Danes who had been settled in Normandy since 911. The Norman Conquest of 1066, the last foreign conquest which England was to undergo, was to be the means of unifying England: that is why it was the last.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST

The Domesday Survey of 1086 makes it possible to construct a more detailed map of England than of any other country at that date, and to illustrate (so far as this can be illustrated by maps) the administrative methods whereby the Norman and Angevin kings turned England into a unified nation. **Plate 18** gives a summary of Domesday knowledge: it shows the little towns, mostly on royal estates, but not yet secured in self-governing rights by charters; the castles, not yet very elaborate structures, but kept in the main under royal control; the areas under normal shire administration and therefore effectively controlled, through their sheriffs, by the King; and the areas where a larger degree of independent authority was for one reason or another allowed to feudal barons. It is not possible (except in the Palatinates) to indicate the estates of particular barons, because these were very widely scattered. This may not have been deliberate, but it had the effect of preventing the feudal grantees from turning themselves into petty princes. The area coloured pink is that in which normal shire government was working. The shires in this area closely correspond with the counties of to-day. It was perhaps the greatest achievement of the Normans and of Henry II that they developed an effective means of controlling the administration of the shires (*a*) by an elaborate central organisation which supervised the sheriffs, and (*b*) by calling the free population into play through the shire-courts.

The only regions in which the shire system was not working fully in 1086 were the West and North, though there were a few areas in the rest of the country where powerful nobles or bishops were permitted special authority. In **Cornwall** the Earl was granted nearly all the land, and although he soon lost his independent jurisdiction, the earldom or duchy of Cornwall has retained some distinctive characteristics. It has always been attached to the royal house, and since 1337 has been held by the King's eldest son. On the borders of Wales three "palatinate" earldoms with semi-independent powers and regalian rights had been set up after the Conquest to keep the Welsh in check. The earldom of **Hereford** was soon suppressed; the earldom of **Shrewsbury** was suppressed in 1102 after its Earl, Roger Montgomery, had conquered a good part of Wales, to which his name was later given; the earldom of **Chester** remained as a powerful and independent palatinate, wherein "the King's writ did not run" and justice and government were carried on in the Earl's name; it even (later) had its own parliament. The palatinate of Chester was the outstanding example in England of a feudal State like those of France. In 1254 the earldom, like that of Cornwall, was attached to the King's eldest son. But it was not until 1541 that the county was placed on the same level as other counties, and given representation in the English Parliament; and it retained some special rights until 1830.

In the North, also, the shire system was still incomplete or irregular. The county of Lancashire was not yet formed: the southern part of it, "between Ribble and Mersey," was loosely connected with Cheshire and is very slightly surveyed in Domesday Book; the northern part, together with the southern part of the modern counties of Cumberland and Westmorland, was loosely attached to Yorkshire, though not included in any of the three ridings of that county. The northern part of Cumberland was as yet outside the limits of England, being still attached to the kingdom of Strathclyde, which had been incorporated with Scotland, and for that reason it was not surveyed in Domesday Book: it was conquered by William Rufus in 1092. The counties of Cumberland and Westmorland were constituted in their present form by Henry I; the county of Lancaster probably by Henry II. In the wide county of Yorkshire there were several very large estates whose lords had higher jurisdiction than was usual elsewhere; while north of the Tees there was a nest of independent jurisdictions. The modern county of **Durham**, though counted as part of Northumberland, enjoyed (under the title of the Lands of St. Cuthbert) a practically palatine power under its Prince-Bishop—the only analogy in England to the Prince-Bishops of Germany. Durham enjoyed its palatine rights and its separate courts until 1836. "Hexhamshire," a part of modern Northumberland, was held with palatine rights by the Archbishop of York; Tynedale, another part of the same county, was held on similar terms by the King of Scots; and Redesdale by a lay baron. All these quasi-palatine jurisdictions are specially indicated in **Plate 18**. This area was not covered by the Domesday Survey. In short, the whole of England north of the Humber was, like the Welsh borders, more fully feudal, and less under royal control through the regular shire system, than the rest of England. Throughout the mediæval period this continued to be so: the "Lords Marcher" (of Wales) and the "northern barons" constantly played an obstreperous part. It was not until the Tudors had subjected these regions to a special conciliar jurisdiction that they were fully assimilated to the rest of the country. The reason for this difference was in part that these regions were backward and barbarous, but still more that they were exposed to attack by the unconquered realms of Wales and Scotland.

Of Wales Domesday has nothing to say, except for that part of it which was included in the county of Chester (Flintshire). Most of South Wales was to be conquered during the next generation by warlike barons carving out estates for themselves, and securing them by castles, which are more numerous in that region than anywhere else in Britain. Of the rest, not much that is definite can be said. The little country was divided into three principalities:

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Gwynedd in the north, Powys in the centre, Deheubarth in the south; but each was split among many tribes and (as in the Highlands of Scotland down to the eighteenth century) there was frequent fighting, not only against the border barons, but among the tribes themselves. Wales was still tribal, and had not yet begun to obtain a national organisation.

EARLY SCOTLAND

Plate 19 illustrates the condition of Scotland at the time of the Norman Conquest, when it had almost reached its historic national limits, though still far from being a consolidated State. The kingdom of Scotland consisted of five distinct elements, which were finally brought together in the eleventh century. (1) **Alban**, Pictavia, or Pictland included the whole of the eastern and northern Highlands from the Forth to the Pentland Firth and was the home of the Picts, one of whose tribes were the Caledonians. Who the Picts were is a question on which there is more learning than knowledge: it has been claimed that they were pre-Aryan, Gaelic, British, or even Teutonic, and there may well have been substantial Teutonic elements among them on the east coast. But they spoke Gaelic in the ninth century. (2) **Dalriada**, roughly the modern Argyllshire, was conquered by the Scots, a Gaelic-speaking tribe from Ireland, in 503. In 860 Kenneth M'Alpine, king of this tribe, also became King of Alban by conquest or descent, and the name of Scotland came to be used by the united realm. Thus by 860 Scotland north of the Forth had been united. (3) **Strathclyde**, including the south-western modern counties of Renfrew, Lanark, Ayrshire, and Dumfries, was a Welsh- or British-speaking country with a royal line of its own; its territory extended south over the modern boundary, and included Cumbria until 1092. In 945 Strathclyde was united with Scotland, but it seems to have retained a sub-king of its own for some time after that date. Already, before that, as a result of long wars with the kings of Northumbria, a substantial English-speaking element had appeared in Strathclyde, and though predominantly of Celtic descent, it was soon to be wholly English-speaking. This British or Welsh area was later to produce William Wallace (Wallace probably means Welshman); and later still was to be the home of Covenanting enthusiasm. (4) **Galloway**, in the extreme south-west, was a Pictish or Gaelic-speaking region, a good deal isolated, but generally dependent upon Strathclyde. (5) **Lothian** was the part of Northumbria north of the Tweed, including the modern counties of Berwick, Roxburgh, Peebles, Selkirk, and the Lothians: an English region, conquered by the Scottish king at the battle of Carham in 1018, and thereafter steadily loyal to the otherwise Celtic kingdom, of which it became the backbone. It was from Lothian that the English tongue and many English institutions spread over the greater part of Scotland, unless, indeed, there was an independent Teutonic settlement on the eastern coasts, in Fife, the Mearns, Aberdeen, and Moray, of which we have no definite knowledge.—These five disparate States, of various origins and tongues, were only slowly welded into a single State: perhaps it was only the long struggle against England that welded them into a real national unity.

In the eighth and ninth centuries the Norsemen had descended upon Scotland as upon England; they had held Caithness (in the extreme north), and the wide region defined as "Moray" on the map; but these lands had been wrested from them in the tenth century, and were now attached to the kingdom; they still held the wild west coast, which closely resembles Norway, together with a suzerainty over the western islands. The Norse conquerors were not got rid of until the thirteenth century (battle of Largs, 1263); and the archipelagoes of Orkney and Shetland remained in their hands until the fifteenth century (1468). Thus, although Scotland had nearly reached her historic limits, she was a divided realm, even more divided than the England of Egbert. The greater part of her territory was still under tribal government, and she still lacked the institutions which could make unity real. These she was to learn, gradually, from the Normans of England.

EARLY IRELAND

Plate 20 illustrates the condition of Ireland on the eve of the first English conquest, in the second half of the twelfth century. Ireland was then, as it had always been, a chaos of warring tribes and principalities. There were five kings, of Midhe (Meath), Uladh (Ulster), Connacht, Laighin (Leinster), and Mumha (Munster); but one of these (usually the King of Meath, with his throne at Tara) was recognised as ardri or chief-king. This was a recognition of the common nationality of the Irish, which was also expressed in their genealogies, showing the descent of all the chiefs from one or other of two brothers. The two brothers probably represent the two races by which Ireland was peopled—the dark-haired Iberians, who formed the substratum of the population, especially in the south, and the Gaels, who, beginning in Meath, had extended their authority southward and northward and imposed their language upon the whole country. In the midst of the incessant tribal warfare civilisation found a home, after the conversion of the island by St. Patrick (c. 450) and his successors, in innumerable monastic settlements, some indication of which is given by the distribution of the black dots on the map. A new complication was added when the Norsemen began to raid the island: they ravaged it constantly, attacking especially the monasteries, throughout the ninth century, and seemed likely to conquer the whole country when they were defeated by Brian Boroimhe of Connaught in 1014, after which they settled down to peaceful trade in the four Danish towns of Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, and Limerick. Thereafter, in a ravaged country, tribal warfare went on as before, until it was interrupted by the invasion of Henry II's Norman barons. The map shows (1) the five kingdoms, (2) the old regional names, such as Ossory, Desmond, Breffny, (3) the location of the principal clans, on the eve of the Norman invasion.

THE ANGEVIN EMPIRE

Plate 22 illustrates the remarkable empire of which England became, for a time, the centre under Henry II, the first of the Angevin or Plantagenet kings (1154–89), and the perfecter of the organising work of the Normans. The reign of Henry II is one of the most important in English history, both in regard to internal development (creation of an efficient central government, new judicial system, establishment of the jury, etc.), which cannot be illustrated by maps, and in regard to the relations of England (*a*) with the other British nations and (*b*) with the Continent. Under this great king the whole of the British Isles seemed to be about to come under a single government. In **Wales** the Lords Marcher had conquered all the south, and both Glamorgan (c. 1100) and Pembroke (1138) had been organised as counties palatine, with full systems of jurisdiction under the control of their feudal lords; while the Prince of North Wales did homage. But a great part of these advances was lost under Henry II's successes, and it was not until the time of Edward I, a century later, that Wales was definitely conquered (see note on **Plate 35***a* below). The King of **Scotland** was forced to do homage, but bought back his independence from Henry's successor Richard I; again, it was not until Edward I that a serious attempt was made to subjugate Scotland. **Ireland** was invaded and largely overrun by Norman barons, and the Irish chiefs recognised Henry as their overlord: this was the beginning of the English

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connection with Ireland (1170), but the conquest was never completed.

Most of Henry II's attention was engrossed by the huge empire in France which came to him by inheritance or marriage. He was the son of the Count of Anjou, who had married Matilda, daughter of Henry I, King of England and Duke of Normandy. From his father he inherited Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, from his mother a claim to the English throne, the duchy of Normandy, and a suzerainty over Brittany: he had made good his hold over Normandy before he came to England. He married Eleanor of Poitou, who brought to him the vast duchy of Aquitaine and its dependencies. These wide lands were difficult to keep in obedience, and both Henry and his son Richard (when not on crusade) spent most of their time trying to secure obedience. As Henry II held more than half France and completely overshadowed his suzerain, the King of France, his position involved enmity between England and France, and began the long hostility between the two countries which lasted throughout the Middle Ages and left traditions that influenced their relations even later.

The history of the vicissitudes of this huge empire forms the staple of the foreign relations of England during the

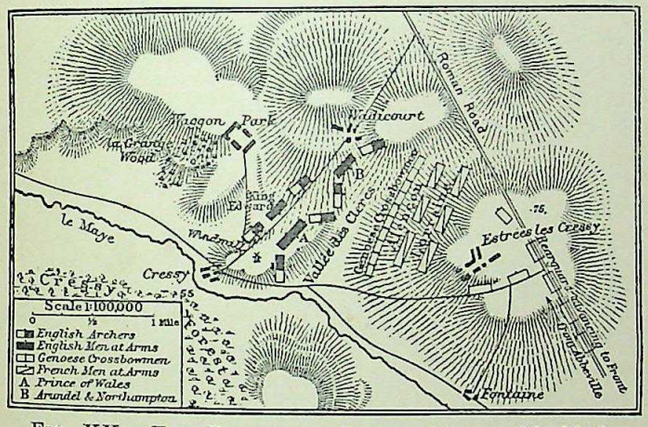

FIG. XX.—THE BATTLE OF CREÇY, AUGUST 26, 1346

Middle Ages. Henry II kept his empire intact until his last days (1189), when, being defeated by his rebellious sons and the King of France, he had to give up Auvergne. Richard I ceded the Agenais and Armagnac to the Count of Toulouse, who married his sister (1196). John, by the Treaty of Goulet, 1200, yielded the districts of Issoudun and Châteauroux. Then in 1203 a judgment of the French Court of Peers declared John's French possessions forfeited, and King Philip Augustus was able to take possession of Normandy, Anjou, Touraine, Maine, Poitou, and Saintonge, while Brittany ceased to pay even nominal allegiance to the English king. Only the southern possessions now remained; and they were being gradually reduced when in 1259 King Louis IX made the Treaty of Paris with Henry III, whereby in return for the abandonment of all claim to the territories already lost, he restored Limousin, Périgord, Agenais, and Quercy to the English king. These changes can be traced in **Plate 24–5**, which shows the territorial distribution in 1259. In 1293 Philip the Fair declared the whole duchy of Guyenne forfeited, and succeeded in occupying the greater part of it. By the time of the succession of Edward III in 1327 only a narrow strip of territory remained of the huge empire of Henry II: it is shown in strong pink in the Inset-map, **Plate 22*a***.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

Edward III's war with France (**Plate 22*a***), which formed the first part of the Hundred Years' War, led to a great increase in the English dominions in France, and by the Treaty of Bretigni, 1360, the duchy of Guyenne or Aquitaine was extended far beyond the limits of 1259, while Calais and the county of Ponthieu were also acquired in

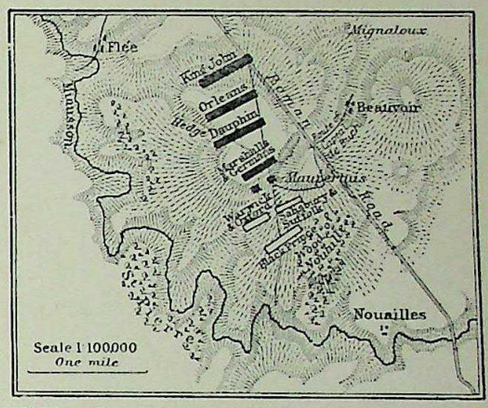

FIG. XXI.—THE BATTLE OF POITIERS, SEPTEMBER 19, 1356

full sovereignty, as the price of the abandonment of Edward's claim to the French throne. But these lands were not long held. A fresh war broke out, and by 1396, when a truce was made, the English possessions were reduced to even narrower limits than in 1327.

Henry V opened the second period of the Hundred Years' War in 1415 (*see* **Plate 37*b***) with the dazzling victory of Agincourt, and then proceeded to the conquest of Normandy, taking advantage of the civil war which was raging in France. By allying himself with the Duke of Burgundy (whose territories are shown on the map) he was able, by the Treaty of Troyes, 1420, to secure for himself the crown of France. During the next few years, even after Henry's death in 1422, the English seemed to be triumphant; and they had reached the highest point of their power (as shown on the map) when in 1429 their conquests were stopped by Joan of Arc. Thereafter they steadily lost ground. By 1435 they had been reduced, in the North, to Normandy. In 1450 they lost Normandy. The French

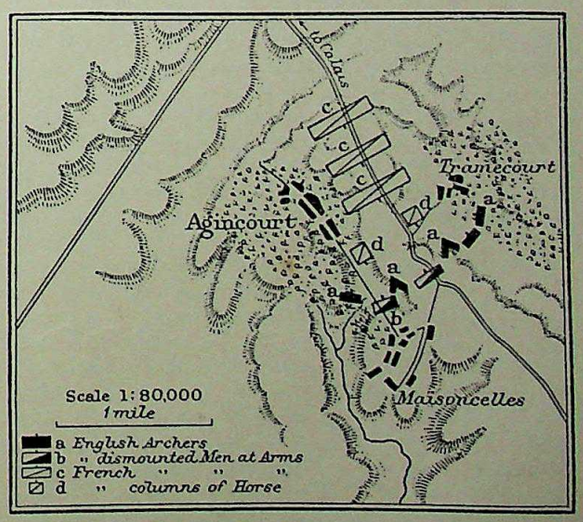

FIG. XXII.—THE BATTLE OF AGINCOURT, OCTOBER 25, 1415

then attacked the ancient and loyal duchy of Guyenne. By 1453 it had been completely conquered, and the last shred of Henry II's empire had been lost. Calais (which had never belonged to Henry II) was preserved as a gateway into France until 1558, when it was lost by Queen Mary.

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The long territorial connection with France had brought to England some great advantages: not only prestige, but growth of trade, closer contact with the culture of Europe, and the opportunity (due to the king's necessities) of

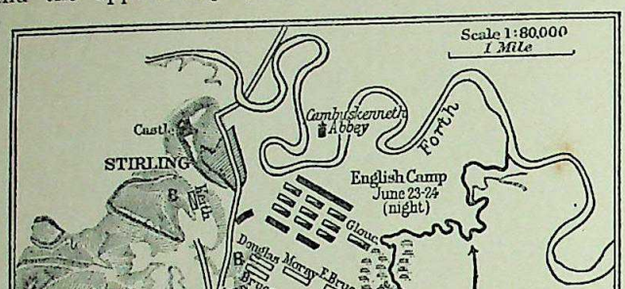

FIG. XXIII.—THE BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN, JUNE 24, 1314

extending the powers of Parliament. But the evils which flowed from this long series of barren wars surely outweighed these benefits.

It has been convenient to trace consecutively the rise and fall of English territorial interests in France. During the same period, however, much more important changes were happening in the relations of England with Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. At the end of the thirteenth century it seemed likely that all three would be effectively subjected to the English Crown. But only Wales was conquered, and by the middle of the fourteenth century English power in Scotland and Ireland was less than it had been under Henry II.

THE CONQUEST OF WALES

In **Wales (Plate 35*a*)** there was a great revival of Welsh patriotism during the confused period that followed Henry II. Llywelyn the Great (1194–1245) and his grandson Llywelyn ap Gruffydd (1246–83) forced most of the chiefs to obey them, and regained much territory from the Marcher Lords: in 1267 Llywelyn ap Gruffydd was recognised by treaty as Prince of Wales. In 1276–7, however, Edward I deprived him of all his territories outside of his own principality of Gwynedd, and in 1282–3 subjugated this last remnant of independent Wales. The new conquests were secured by a series of formidable castles, Conway, Beaumaris, Carnarvon, Criccieth, and Harlech, and Gwynedd was divided into the three shires of Anglesey, Carnarvon, and Merioneth, organised under sheriffs on the English model; Cardigan and Carmarthen were also organised as shires. The rest of Wales remained under the feudal rule of the Marcher Lords, Glamorgan and Pembroke continuing to hold the rank of counties palatine. This state of things continued throughout the Middle Ages, and was only ended by the Act of Union of 1536, whereby Henry VIII not only gave to Wales for the first time the right of returning members to the English Parliament, but also organised the lands of the Marcher Lords as counties on the normal model, and deprived Pembroke and Glamorgan of their palatine rights. This, after a long interval, was the completion of the conquest of Wales, carried out by a Welsh King of England.

WARS WITH SCOTLAND

In **Scotland** the attempt at conquest was, after the initial successes of Edward I, wholly unsuccessful: its only important territorial result was that the franchise of Tynedale in Northumberland ceased to be held by the Scottish kings. Edward I's claim of suzerainty in 1291 and his momentary subjugation of the country in 1296 were indeed the beginning of a war of independence which went on intermittently for three hundred years: even when there was no formal war, strife went on incessantly on the borders, and the fighting families of the Scottish border in the East, Middle, and West Marches—the Scotts and the Elliotts, the Armstrongs and the Johnstones—formed a kind of screen behind which Scotland carried on her turbulent life. **Plate 35*b*** shows the area of this long-continued struggle and gives the sites of the battlefields and the fortresses. The critical battle of Bannockburn is illustrated by a plan, **Fig. XXIII**.

THE ENGLISH IN IRELAND

In **Ireland** the invading Norman barons had made steady progress during the thirteenth century. A large part of the country had been organised into shires on the English plan (*see* **Fig. XXIV**); this was the infallible sign of orderly government; while even in the "unshired" regions great Norman families, such as the De Burghs (Burkes), had established themselves and their feudal arrangements among the Irish clans. But in 1318, as a revenge for the English attempt to subjugate Scotland, Edward, brother

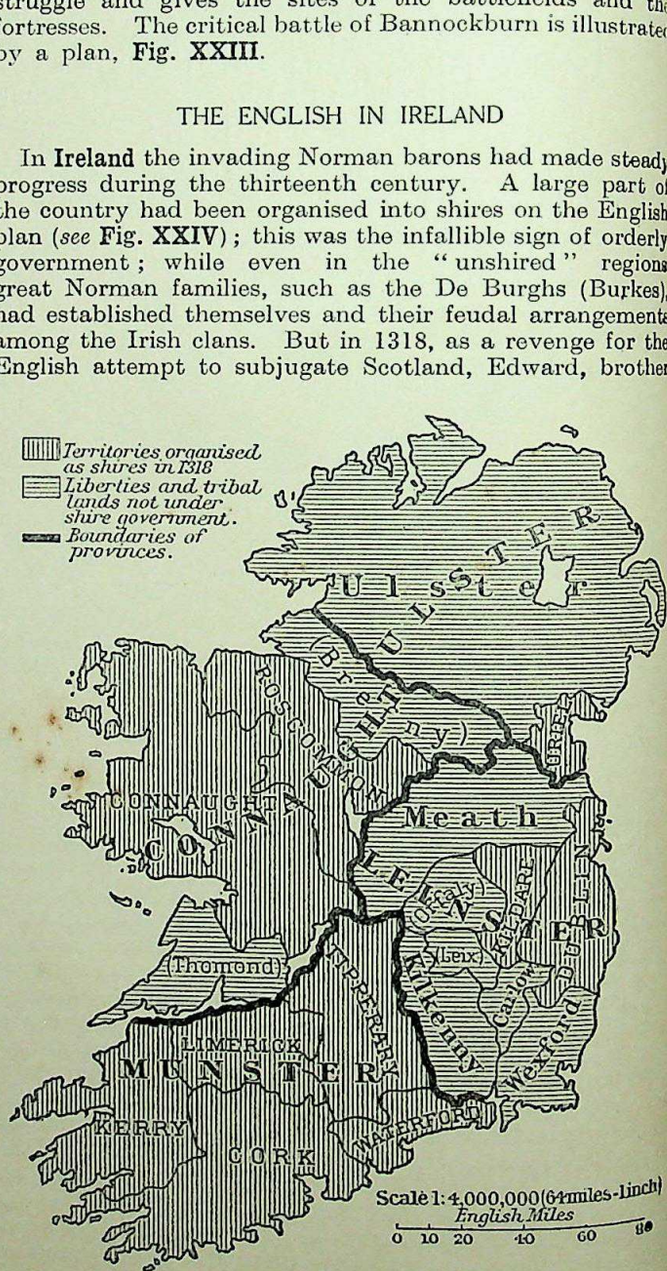

FIG. XXIV.—IRISH SHIRES IN 1318

of King Robert Bruce, invaded Ireland with a Scottish army in the hope of turning it into a Scottish province. He failed; but his attack broke up the English power. The county organisation disappeared, except in the neigh-

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bourhood of Dublin; the Norman barons became assimilated with their Celtic neighbours; and Ireland fell back again into chaos. It had to be reconquered by the Tudors.

SOCIAL ORGANISATION

In the diagrams included on **Plate 35** an attempt is made to illustrate the social development of the British people, so far as this can be done graphically. The main facts represented by these diagrams were not peculiar to England, but were common to the greater part of Western Europe. The first diagram, **35***c*, shows a typical open-field village with its three-field system taking turns in a regular rotation of crops, and its meadow-areas: each villager had his holding distributed over all the fields; the holding of one villager, consisting of a *virgate* of thirty scattered acres, with a messuage in the village street, is shown on the plan. This system was hostile to experiment or progress, because all the villagers had to agree. But it necessitated co-operation and therefore encouraged self-government. It broke down gradually, first in the north-west (where wide areas of unenclosed land, gradually brought under cultivation, lent themselves to individual rather than co-operative farming) and in the south-east, where new crops were introduced. But the system survived over more than half of England until late in the eighteenth century: *see* **Fig. XXXVII**. The second diagram, **35***d*, shows a small mediæval borough in the midst of its fields. Leicester was a county-town, a chartered borough, with an encircling wall and a castle; yet it remained predominantly an agricultural community, whose burgesses had holdings in the open fields just like villagers; it wakened up to trade activity, for the most part, only on the weekly market days and at the annual fair. This was the case with nearly all the boroughs shown on **Plate 34**. The third diagram, **35***e*, gives a closer study of a walled town—Chester, the only important English town save York which preserves its complete wall and towers to-day. It had need to be fortified, because it was a border fortress against the Welsh. Note that on the east and north the line of the city wall follows the line of the old Roman *castrum*: on the west and south the city has extended to the river edge, beyond the line of the *castrum*. Note, also, the characteristic position of the Castle, dominating the town from one corner of the enceinte, and so placed as to command the bridge. The same feature may be observed on the plan of Leicester, and also on the plan of mediæval London, **Plate 34***a*. The fourth diagram, **35***f*, shows a typical specimen of the elaborate military fortifications of the thirteenth century: a "concentric" castle, with a hexagonal outer wall equipped with bastions to control every approach, surrounding a stronger inner fortification, the main fortress: note how the gateways of the outer curtain are arranged so as not to correspond with the gateways of the inner fort. Beaumaris was one of the group of castles built by Edward I to hold down North Wales after the conquest. The more splendid castles of Carnarvon and Conway were not built upon the "concentric" plan, but placed the main keep or stronghold at one end, in an "inner bailey"—as in the case of Richard I's famous Château Gaillard (**35***g*), which was one of the most elaborate and scientific fortresses of its period. The last diagram, **35***h*, gives a typical plan of one of the monasteries which formed the main centres of learning and civilisation in the early Middle Ages: the distribution of the monasteries in England is shown in **Plate 44**. The whole group of buildings was dominated by the chapel, often a magnificent structure, in which the monks spent a large part of their lives, attending services every few hours. The chapel stood usually (as in this case) at the north side of the group. On the east side, attached to the south transept of the chapel, was the chapter-house, where the monks met daily for business and exhortation. The south side, furthest removed from the chapel, housed the refectory and domestic offices; the west side was often devoted to lay brothers. In the centre, surrounding an open grass-plot or garth, was the covered cloister, which was, in simpler days, the main living-place of the monks when they were not attending service in chapel or labouring in the fields. When the monastery kept a school, it was often on the west side; on the north side, next to the chapel, the Abbot and others sat or worked; on the east side the scriptorium (where manuscripts were copied) was commonly housed; on the south side, near the refectory, the cloister often contained a stone lavatory-trough. Thus the buildings of a monastery express the life of busy routine which they housed.

ENGLAND IN THE LATER MIDDLE AGES

Plate 34 illustrates the condition of England in the later Middle Ages, when the national system of government was fully developed, the Justices of the Peace were responsible for local administration, and Parliament had become an accepted institution. The map illustrates fully the history of parliamentary representation down to the reorganisation under the Tudors. It shows (*a*) by underlinings the boroughs which sent representatives to the Model Parliament of 1295; (*b*) by a special symbol the boroughs which were intermittently represented, and (*c*) by black dots (with four points where a borough was also the site of a castle) the boroughs which were permanently represented after 1366, when the representation was finally fixed. The distribution of these black dots shows how small a part the North and West of England had in the parliamentary system: there were no boroughs in Lancashire, and only six north of the Mersey and Humber. The majority were south of the Thames: between the Thames and the Humber there were only a couple of dozen. As the map shows, the distribution had been far more equal in 1295.

A second feature which the map brings out is the survival of special jurisdictions in the West and in the North. They had even been increased by the conferment of palatinate rights upon the county of Lancaster in 1351. Lancashire had its own chancery and its own courts, which it still in part retains, though, unlike the other palatinates, it was represented as a county in Parliament. The special franchises of Northumberland still survived, along with the palatinate of Durham; there were several feudal franchises in Yorkshire; and in Cumberland and Westmorland, though they were organised as counties, the military organisation of a border area dominated the ordinary machinery of government. In Wales the extensive March district (which included some districts later incorporated in the neighbouring English counties) was still under feudal rule, and remained so until the drastic reorganisation carried out in 1536 by Henry VIII.

The map also brings out the immense wealth of the House of Lancaster, which was a disturbing feature throughout the fourteenth century, until the Lancastrian lands were transferred to the Crown on the accession of Henry IV. A distinction must be drawn between the *county* of Lancaster, which was a palatine county under the control of its earl or duke, who, though a large, was not the chief lord of the whole county, and the *duchy* of Lancaster, which included a large number of scattered estates, especially in Yorkshire and the North Midlands, but also in other parts of the country. The estates of the House of York were far less extensive, but they included the earldom of March on the Welsh border. It has been found impossible to indicate the geographical distribution of the Lancastrian and Yorkist factions in the Wars of the Roses, but the map may be used for general reference in studying these conflicts.

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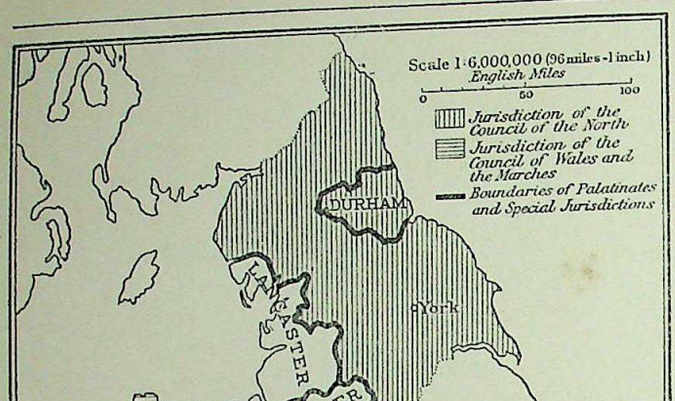

FIG. XXV.—CONCILIAR JURISDICTION OF THE TUDORS

MODERN BRITAIN

With the Tudor period the modern era of British history opened. Oversea enterprise, the characteristic mark of modern British history, began with the voyages of the Cabots under the first Tudor. The Protestant Reformation, with all its immense consequences, reached and conquered both England and Scotland. The three hundred years' war with Scotland, which had filled the later Middle Ages, was ended by the two countries' common interest in Protestantism. Territorial ambitions in France were finally abandoned. The reconquest of Ireland was cruelly achieved. Wales was reorganised and finally incorporated in England. And the last relics of mediævalism in the political geography of England were destroyed: the feudal West and the feudal North, which had been differently organised from the rest of the country since the Norman Conquest, were assimilated. This work was in the main achieved by two branches of the Privy Council which were established for these regions by Henry VIII, and continued until the Civil War. They were known as the Council of the North and the Council of Wales and the Marches. The areas of their jurisdiction are shown in **Fig. XXV**. They made effective in these turbulent areas the power of the Privy Council, which was the central organ of Tudor government, as the Justices of the Peace were its local organs.

ECCLESIASTICAL ENGLAND

The greatest changes in the political geography and land-system of England were due to the Reformation, carried out on its political side by Henry VIII. **Plate 44** shows the effect of these changes; and notably of the suppression of the monasteries. Each black dot on the map represents a monastery, a centre of charity and sometimes of education, and an owner of estates. The greater monasteries, which

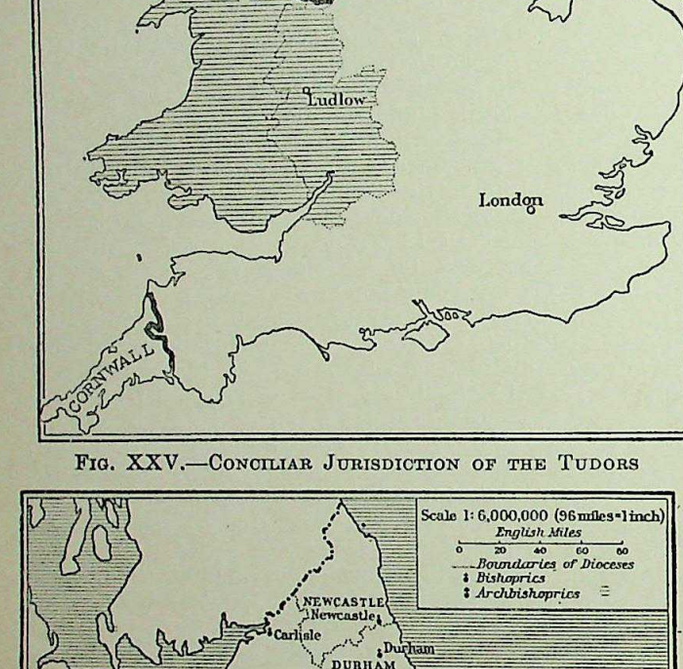

FIG. XXVI.—ENGLISH BISHOPRICS (CHURCH OF ENGLAND) IN 1945

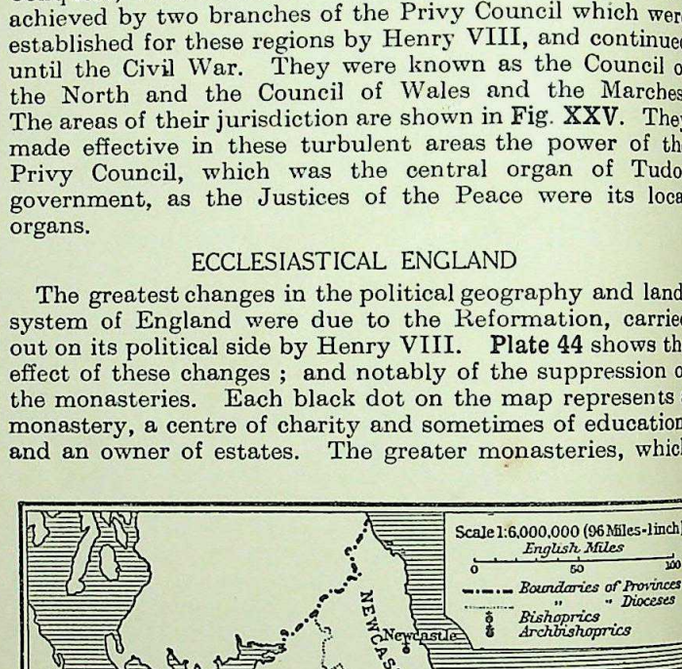

FIG. XXVII.—ENGLISH BISHOPRICS (ROMAN CATHOLIC) IN 1945

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were suppressed last, and the powerful abbeys which returned members to the House of Lords and which had (with the Bishops) made an ecclesiastical majority in that house, are indicated by special symbols. It may be noted that only two of the twenty-five parliamentary abbeys were in the North of England. Monasteries were most numerous, as the map shows, in Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, and East Anglia ; it was in the first two counties that the revolt against the suppression known as the Pilgrimage of Grace broke out. Out of the plunder of the monasteries, most of which went to build up the fortunes of a new nobility, Henry VIII also increased the number of bishoprics, which had remained unchanged throughout the later Middle Ages. Of the twenty-one sees in existence when Henry VIII made himself Head of the Church, thirteen dated from before the Norman Conquest, four were created in the generation following the Norman Conquest, and four in the first half of the twelfth century. Not a single new diocese had been made since the accession of Henry II until in 1541–2 Henry VIII made five new ones, carving Peterborough and Oxford out of the huge diocese of Lincoln, Chester out of York and Lichfield, Gloucester out of Worcester, and Bristol out of Salisbury. The dioceses as he then fixed them remained unaltered until the middle of the nineteenth century. Since then their number has been rapidly increased, and their present distribution is shown in Fig. **XXVI**, while **Fig. XXVII** shows the Roman Catholic dioceses.

SCOTLAND IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

For Scotland and Ireland the sixteenth century was even more important than for England. **Plate 45***a* is intended to illustrate the history of Scotland from the Reformation to the Restoration. In imitation of the English method, the greater part of the country had been divided into shires as early as the thirteenth century. The older district names such as Angus and Mearns, which were often used instead of the shire names, are given in **Plate 19**. The shire system was, however, extremely imperfect in the Highlands ; and the whole of the northern Highlands were under the single sheriff of Inverness until 1641, when the modern shires of Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness were marked off. The "Highland Line," which is boldly indicated on the map, was a very real thing : within this line the tribal or clan system held sway, chieftains exercised summary jurisdiction and powers of life and death, and clan wars were frequent. Clan rivalries counted for more than national interests ; and this was often a factor of importance. Thus Montrose, during the Civil War, was able to make use of the hatred of all their neighbours for the powerful clan Campbell, whose chief, the Earl of Argyll, had taken the lead against Charles I ; even in the eighteenth century the Young Chevalier was able to play upon these ancient rivalries. The "Marches" on the English border were almost as turbulent as the Highlands, until the union of the Crowns in 1603 brought the long Anglo-Scottish feud to an end.

IRELAND BEFORE THE TUDOR CONQUEST

Plate 45*b* indicates the condition of Ireland on the eve of the Tudor conquest, which began under Henry VIII but was mainly achieved under Elizabeth, with accompaniments of incredible ferocity. Between Bruce's expedition in 1318 and the accession of Henry VIII the authority of the Crown had almost vanished from the greater part of Ireland ; the English shire system was almost limited to the Pale, which extended from Dundalk to Dublin ; and outside of these limits the great Norman families had mostly relapsed into Irish ways of life. The chief among them were the two branches of the Fitzgeralds (Kildare and Desmond) and the Butlers of Tipperary, between whom there was acute rivalry. The chief difference between Ireland and England lay in the fact that Ireland was still tribal, and the tribal system was supported by a mode of land-holding which vested the tribal lands in the chief as the representative of his whole clan. It was against this system that the Tudors declared war, introducing in one area after another the English system of full private ownership of land. The stages by which this change was achieved are indicated in the Inset-map, which is coloured according to date.

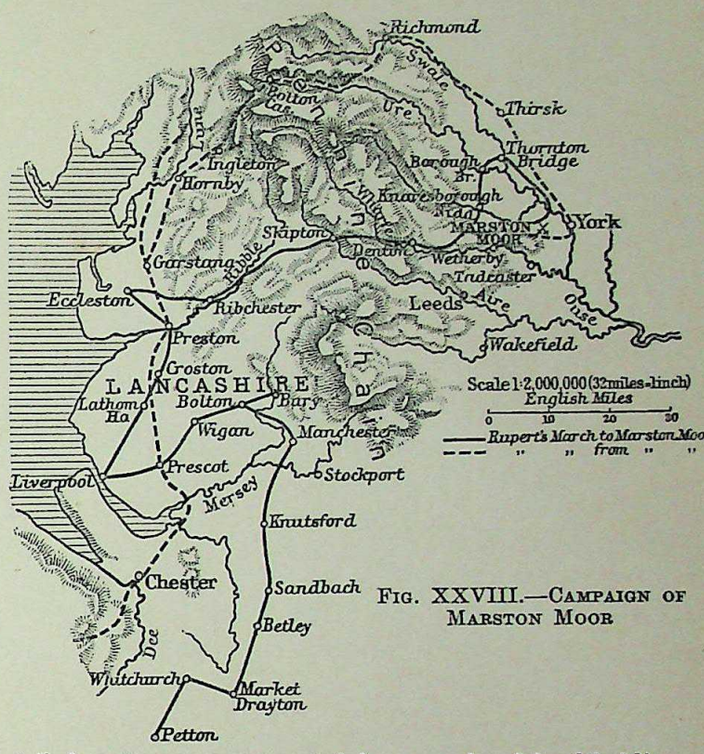

FIG. XXVIII.—CAMPAIGN OF MARSTON MOOR

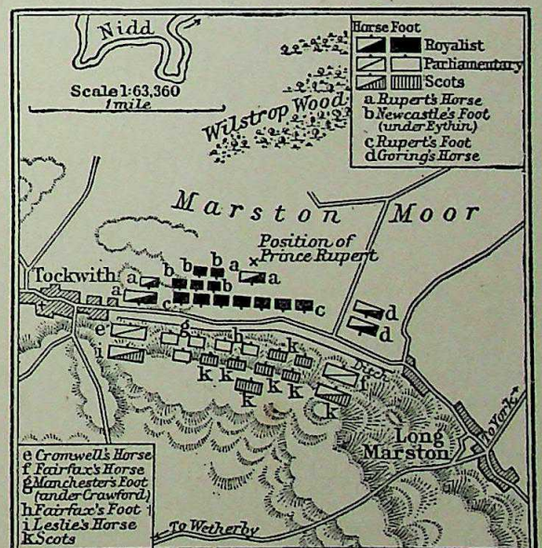

FIG. XXIX.—THE BATTLE OF MARSTON MOOR, JULY 2, 1644

THE CIVIL WAR

The two maps on **Plate 54** summarise between them the history of the English Civil War ; the war in Scotland can be followed in **Plate 45***a*, that in Ireland in **Plate 58***b*. On the first map on **Plate 54** note that the King's strength at the beginning of the war lay mainly in those regions of the West and North where the feudal order had survived longest, and which were most backward : Parliament began with command over the rich South and East, controlling the

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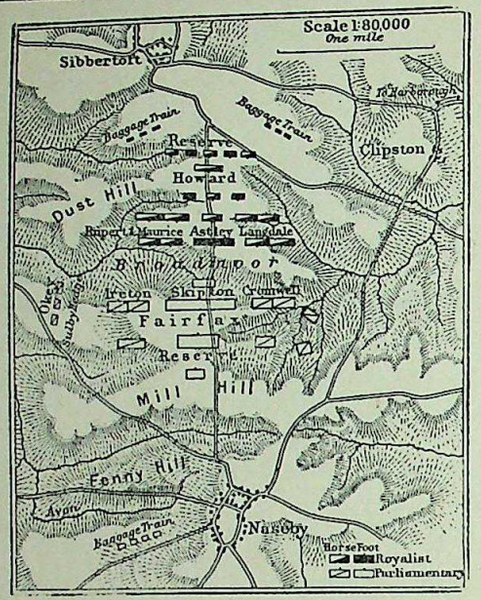

FIG. XXX.—THE BATTLE OF NASEBY, JUNE 14, 1645

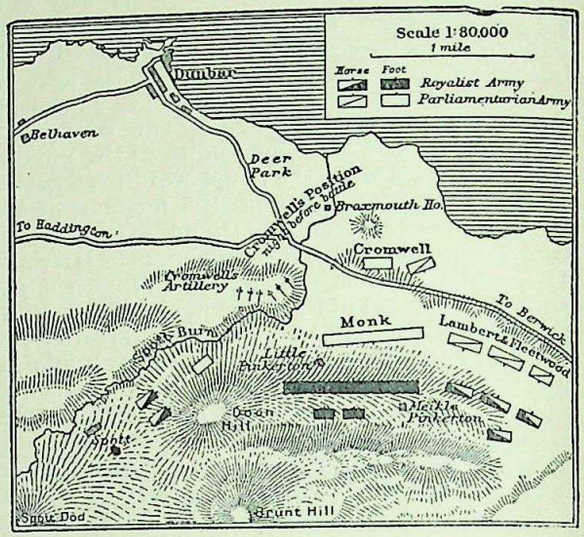

FIG. XXXI.—THE BATTLE OF DUNBAR, SEPTEMBER 3, 1650

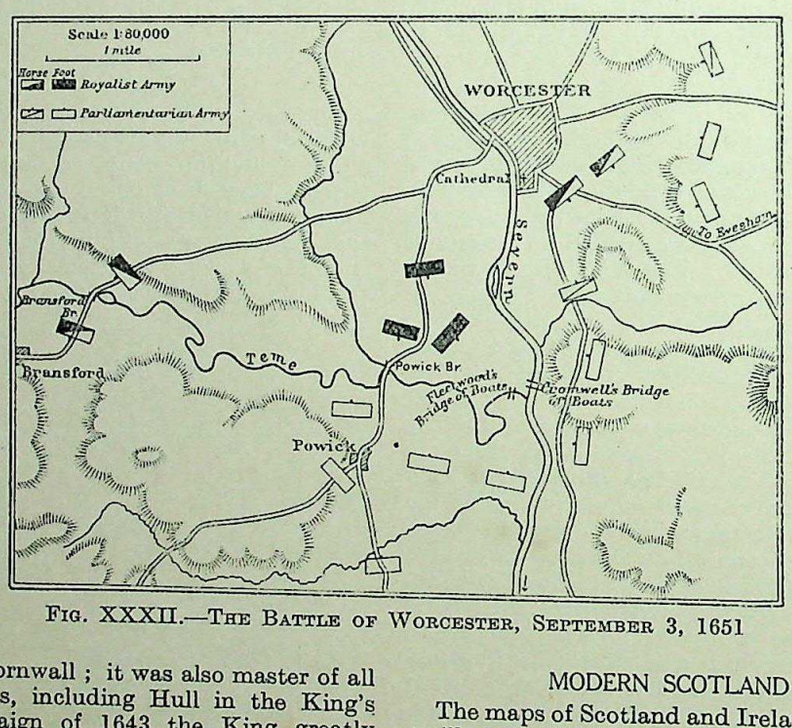

FIG. XXXII.—THE BATTLE OF WORCESTER, SEPTEMBER 3, 1651

whole of the South save Cornwall ; it was also master of all the most important ports, including Hull in the King's area. During the campaign of 1643 the King greatly strengthened his position by conquering (1) the whole of the South-west from Cornwall to Oxford, and (2) in the North, Lincolnshire and Derbyshire. But the Parliamentarians, by mastering Staffordshire and West Lancashire, drove a wedge between the King's territories, and made the landing of reinforcements from Ireland difficult. In the campaign of 1644 the Parliamentarians, with the aid of the Scots, won the whole of the North in the Marston Moor campaign : this position is shown in the second map. It was to avert this danger, which made the King's position dangerous, that Prince Rupert made his brilliant march to the North, which temporarily restored the position in Lancashire, but failed to prevent the main disaster : the march is shown in **Fig. XXVIII.** In 1645, after the decisive pitched battle of Naseby, it only remained to reconquer the South-west ; and in 1646 the King's position had become quite hopeless. Four of the principal battles of the Civil War are shown in **Figs. XXIX–XXXII.**

MODERN SCOTLAND AND IRELAND

The maps of Scotland and Ireland on **Plate 58** are intended to illustrate the history of these countries from the Restoration onwards—the Covenanting struggle, the Revolution and the revolt of Dundee, the risings of 1615 and 1745 in Scotland ; the war of the revolution, the disputes of the eighteenth century, the rebellion of '98, and the French wars in Ireland. But these events, important as they were, led to no territorial changes that demand annotation. The parliamentary history of both countries, and the effect upon their representative systems of the two Acts of Union, are shown in **Plate 75**, and discussed in the note thereon below.

THE NARROW SEAS

From the Restoration onwards the political history of England also involved no territorial changes which can be cartographically illustrated. The interest of her history depends (*a*) upon constitutional developments, which cannot be described in maps, and (*b*) upon oversea expansion, which is treated in the next two sections of this Introduction.

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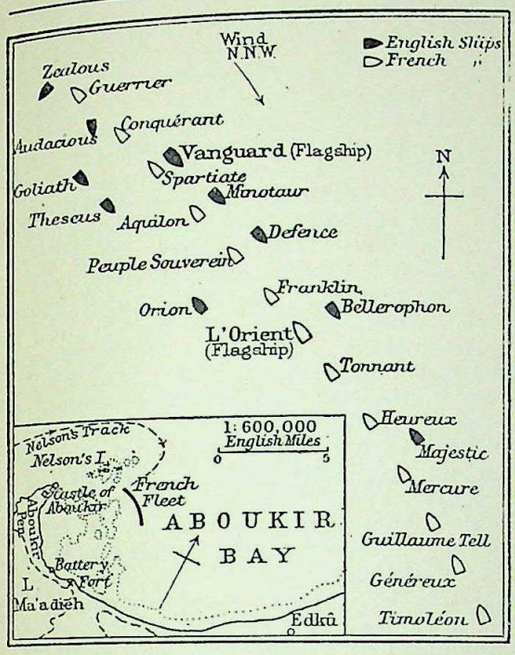

FIG. XXXIII.—THE BATTLE OF THE NILE, AUGUST 1, 1798

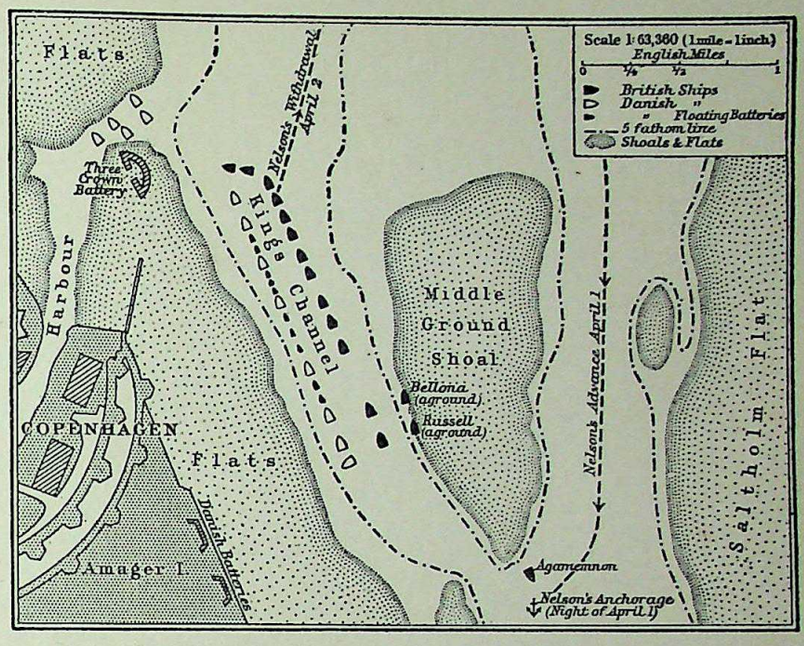

FIG. XXXIV.—THE BATTLE OF COPENHAGEN, APRIL 2, 1801

But the possibility of this expansion depended upon the maintenance of naval supremacy, which was won and held by a long series of naval fights, from the Armada to Trafalgar, mainly in the home waters of the Narrow Seas, but also on the coasts of Holland, France, and Spain, in the West Indies, and on the shores of America. The two maps on **Plate 62** are intended to illustrate all this long record of sea-war, especially the defeat of the Spanish Armada, the wars with the Dutch in the seventeenth century, and the wars with France from 1689 to 1815. Plans of Nelson's chief battles will be found in **Figs. XXXIII–XXXV**.

PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION

Plate 75 illustrates the parliamentary representation of the United Kingdom before and after the Reform Act of 1832, and the parliamentary representation of Scotland and Ireland before the Scottish and Irish Acts of Union. For **England**, this map should be compared with **Plate 34**, which shows the boroughs represented at the close of the Middle Ages with a solid black dot. The only change that had since been made was a great increase in the number of boroughs, due mainly to the desire of the Tudors and early Stuarts to influence the composition of Parliament. The increase was most marked in Cornwall, because Cornwall was a royal duchy, but the boroughs in Lancashire and Yorkshire were mostly added during this period. There was no standard of size for a parliamentary borough, and the result was a gross disproportion to population: thus Cornwall had in all 44 representatives, and Wiltshire 34, while Cheshire had only 4 and Oxfordshire 9. Each county returned 2 knights of the shire, Yorkshire and Rutland being on a parity; each borough also returned 2 members, except Banbury and Higham Ferrers, which had 1 each. The voting qualification in the shires was a forty-shilling freehold. In the boroughs it varied infinitely—sometimes going with the occupancy of particular strips of land or "burgages," which might be uninhabited; sometimes being limited to freemen; sometimes open to all ratepayers or even to everybody who could boil his own pot on his own fire: local custom determined. Thus while some constituencies had a large electorate (Preston, Norwich, Westminster), the great majority had a very small electorate, sometimes only two or three voters. In **Wales**, which sent members to the English Parliament from 1536, each county returned 1 member, and the group of boroughs in the county (if any) returned another. The boroughs shown in the map were grouped in this way, on a county basis. In **Scotland**, from 1326, there was a Parliament

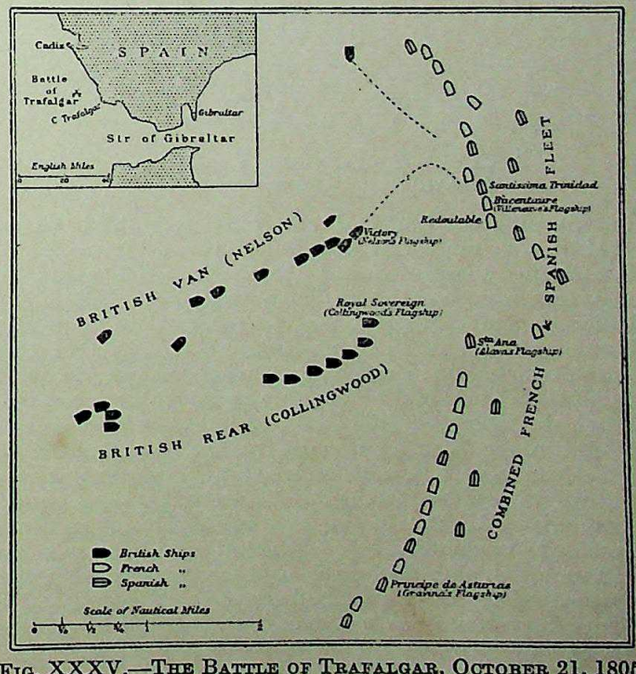

FIG. XXXV.—THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR, OCTOBER 21, 1805

with county or burgh members more or less modelled on the English Parliament, but the system of representation varied from time to time. During the seventeenth century each county sent 1 member, elected by the lesser barons or immediate tenants of the Crown; each burgh also sent 1 member. The burghs thus represented were those shown on the map. By the Act of Union the total representation of

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Scotland was cut down to 45 : 30 of these were given to the counties, 27 of which returned 1 member each, while the other 6 were grouped in pairs (Bute and Caithness, Clackmannan and Kinross, Cromarty and Nairn), which took it in turns to elect a member. The boroughs (except Edinburgh, which had 1 member) were divided into 14 groups, each of which shared a member. In **Ireland** there was a

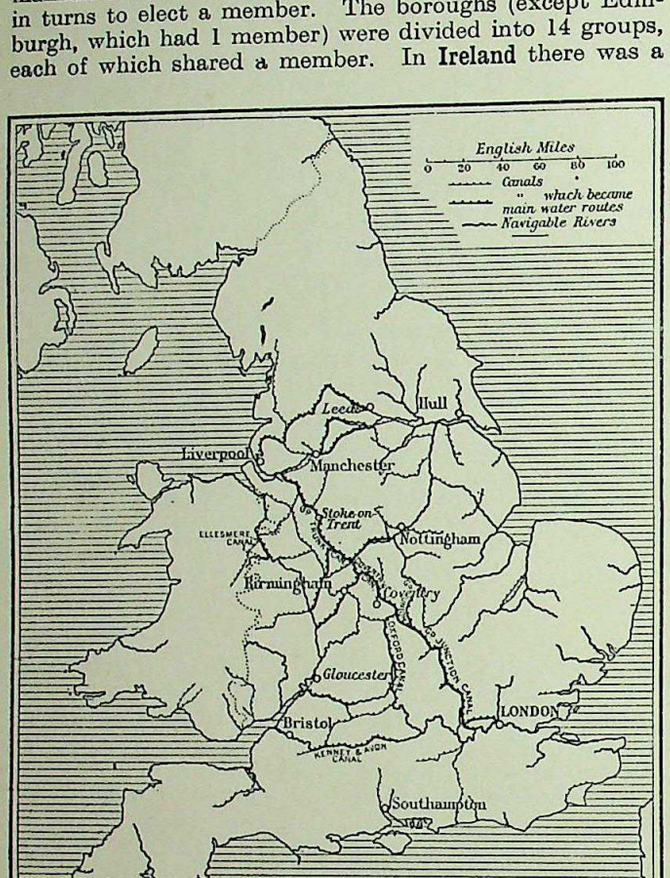

Fig. XXXVI.—England and Wales: Canals and Navigable Rivers before 1830

Parliament from 1297 and more fully from 1310, but until 1541 it was limited to the Pale. It was from the first even more unrepresentative than that of England, and boroughs were created on a wholesale scale. Before the Union it had 300 members, of whom 234 represented boroughs, most of them tiny places. The Act of Union gave Ireland 100 members, 2 for each county, 2 each for Dublin and Cork, and 1 each for 32 boroughs, the remainder being disfranchised and thrown into the counties. In 1832 three Reform Acts were passed, for England and Wales, for Scotland, and for Ireland. The Scottish representation was raised from 45 to 53, the extra representation being given to the boroughs. The Irish representation remained unchanged. In England 56 boroughs were disfranchised and 32 lost 1 of their members ; 22 unrepresented towns got 2 members each, 20 got 1, and the county representation was increased from 94 to 159.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Plate 74 illustrates the greatest change that has passed over England—the Industrial Revolution—by means of a pair of maps, one for 1701, the other for 1911, each indicating the distribution of population, the number and location of large towns, and the sites of the chief industries. These maps should be compared with those on **Plates 90 and 91**, which show by similar means the industrialisation of Europe and of the United States during the nineteenth century. The details given as to population on the first of the maps on **Plate 74** are in part guesswork, accurate detail being impossible before the first census, which was taken in 1801 ; but they are in accord with the available evidence. The details on the second map are based on the census figures of 1911. Note that in the first map there are only three towns with populations of more than 20,000, and they are all in the area, marked off by a line from Plymouth to the Wye and thence to Scarborough, whose preponderance in English history we have often noted. New centres of population were indeed beginning to arise to the north and west of this line with the growth of the woollen industry in West Yorkshire, of rough textiles in East Lancashire, and of the coal trade in the Newcastle district, but even in industry the main centres of woollen manufacture were in the South-west (Wiltshire and the neighbouring counties) and in the East round Norwich ; the chief iron-fields were in Sussex, where the iron was smelted with wood from the ancient forest of Andredsweald ; the hardware trades had modest centres in Sheffield and Birmingham ; shipbuilding was carried on in many little ports. In the second map a complete change is visible, and an amazing redistribution of population. Dense masses of towns have come into being ; and, except London, they are all to the north and west of our imaginary line—South Wales, the Birmingham area, the North-east Midlands, Lancashire, Yorkshire, Tyneland, and Central Scotland. These concentrations of population are all on the coal-fields, which have become the main sites of the cotton, woollen, iron and steel, engineering, and shipbuilding industries. The main railway lines are also indicated, though not in as much detail as on the American and European maps. For the canal system, which preceded the railways, see **Fig. XXXVI**.

The Industrial Revolution was both preceded and accompanied by an Agrarian Revolution, whereby the ancient system of communal land cultivation, which had come down from the Middle Ages (*see* **Plate 35c** and above, p. 33), was rapidly displaced by a system of capitalist

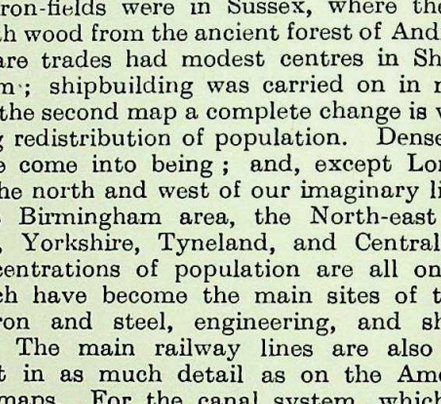

Fig. XXXVII.—Enclosures in England in the Eighteenth Century

The area shaded vertically was mainly or largely cultivated on the open-field system in 1700 *; the area shaded horizontally was partially and sporadically cultivated on this system.*

farming. The change was brought about partly by a voluntary break-up of the old system : this had been going on, piecemeal, for centuries ; but mainly by Enclosure Acts whereby both the open cultivated fields and the untilled wastelands upon which cultivators had rights of pasture, were enclosed in blocks under complete individual

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ownership. The regions of the country in which the old system survived, and which were therefore mainly affected by the enclosure movement of the eighteenth century, are indicated in **Fig. XXXVII**. The effects of the change were (*a*) a large increase in production and in agricultural efficiency; (*b*) a very serious social dislocation, which added to the troubles of the Industrial Revolution.

BRITISH UNIVERSITIES

Fig. XXXVIII illustrates an aspect of modern British history not easily expressed in maps: the improvement of the country's intellectual equipment. Until the nineteenth century England was content with two universities, which were practically the preserves of the Church and the governing class. Scotland, with perhaps one-tenth of the population, had four universities; for that reason respect for knowledge was much more widely diffused in Scotland than in England. Ireland had one, practically confined to the dominant Anglican minority. Wales had none. In the other countries of Europe universities were numerous. During the nineteenth century the democratic movement gave birth to a tepid demand for a wider diffusion of university education. Durham was founded in 1836 out of the rich revenues of the see, primarily as a clergy-school. London was established at the same time, but only as an examining body, though for a time teaching institutions were affiliated to it. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century a real revival began. Many university colleges sprang into being, the nuclei of future universities. Three of these were united together to form the federal university of Wales; three went to form the federal Victoria University; four in Ireland were grouped under the Royal University as an examining body. In the twentieth century, coincidently with the rise of an organised system of secondary education, new universities, much more adequately equipped than the colleges from which they sprang, were established with remarkable rapidity. These stages of university development are indicated in **Fig. XXXVIII**. They constitute the most promising revival of learning which England has seen since the Renascence;

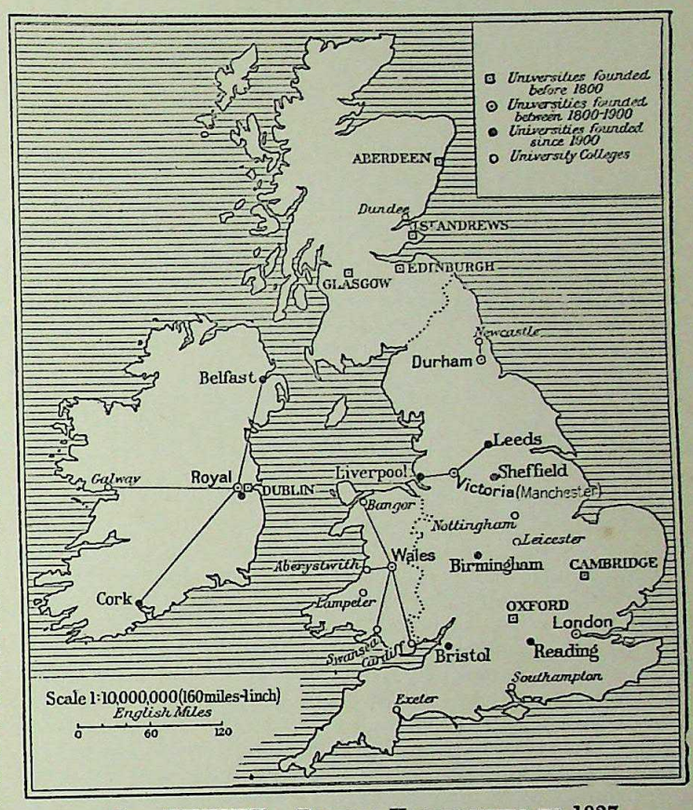

FIG. XXXVIII.—BRITISH UNIVERSITIES IN 1927

and afford some hope that she may be able to hold her own in the era of organised science which has now opened.

SECTION III

THE EXPANSION OF EUROPE

UNTIL the end of the fifteenth century Western or European civilisation was limited to the European continent. Then it began to extend its influence outwards, and the most remarkable feature of history during the last four centuries has been the opening up of the world, and the extension of the control or influence of the greater European peoples over the rest of the world. This process has had the result that in the twentieth century the whole world has been brought within a single political and economic system—a development essentially more important than the dynastic or national disputes of the European States.

It is the purpose of this section of the Introduction to survey this cosmic process in broad outline, and to indicate the light which is thrown upon it by the maps contained in this volume. The later sections will deal in fuller detail with the two most significant products of this development —the British Empire in Section IV; the United States in Section V.

THE CAUSES OF EXPANSION

A number of distinct causes combined to bring about the sudden development of oversea activity on the part of those European peoples which occupied the Atlantic coast. (1) Europe had reached a stage of greater prosperity and order than she had known during the Middle Ages, and there was a great increase in the demand for the luxuries which had always come, by devious and costly caravan routes, from the East—spices, fine woven stuffs, gems and gold. (2) At this moment the old trade-routes were to some extent impeded by the conflicts which attended the extension of the Turkish Empire (*see* above, p. 15); this stimulated the desire to find a less obstructed route. (3) The revival of classical knowledge, due to the growth of the universities and to the Renascence, gradually brought about a revision of the accepted notions as to the shape of the earth, and as to the possibility of finding sea-routes to the East, whether by an eastward or by a westward passage. (4) The material equipment of Western civilisation had been greatly improved: ship-building had made great progress, so that boats no longer needed to hug the shores; the mariner's compass had been introduced from China; and gunpowder (first used in war in the fourteenth century) had given to the Western nations an assured superiority, such as they had not earlier possessed, over the other peoples of the world. These things made bold oceanic exploration possible. (5) The national spirit was now triumphant among the peoples of the Atlantic seaboard, Spain, Portugal, France, and England, and incited them to great

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adventures: in Spain and Portugal, in particular, it was strengthened by a Crusading fervour, induced by their history, which impelled them to go forth and conquer the infidel. All these reasons combined to bring about, in the first generations of the modern era, a sudden outburst of activity which changed the course of history.

MEDIÆVAL GEOGRAPHICAL KNOWLEDGE

The gradual expansion of knowledge about geography during the Middle Ages (which prepared the way for the great explorations) is illustrated by a series of small key-maps, simplified versions of the originals, which will be found on **Plates 42 and 43**. In spite of the raid of Alexander the Great to the Indus, the extensive Asiatic empire of his successors, and the frequent wars of the Roman Empire with the Parthians and Persians, even the Romans had no real knowledge of the geography of Asia. The extent of their knowledge is shown in Ptolemy's map (c. A.D. 150), of which a simplified outline is given in **Plate 42*b***: Ptolemy knew the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, and Mesopotamia; but he had no clear ideas about India, and still less about China. He knew that the east and west coasts of Africa trended southwards; but in spite of the legend, preserved by Herodotus, that the Phœnicians had circumnavigated Africa, he does not show an ocean south of that continent, though another Roman geographer, Pomponius Mela, believed in it. With the fall of the Empire geographical knowledge declined, though there was always a thin stream of traffic to Europe from the East, by the caravan routes shown in **Plate 30–1**. Revival came from contact with the Saracens, especially after the first Crusade; for the Saracens knew Ptolemy's work, and made many maps themselves, embodying the knowledge acquired from their wide conquests. In the twelfth century Edrisi, a Saracen geographer from Spain, settled at the court of Roger II of Sicily, and collected all the geographical knowledge of the time. His map, dated 1154, and given in a simplified form in **Plate 42*c***, indicates the extent of early mediæval knowledge. It adds little or nothing to Ptolemy. It is constructed on the accepted mediæval theory that the world was a round, flat disc, whose land-masses were enclosed by the river Oceanus. It is notable that Edrisi knows nothing about the Norse discoveries in America, which are indicated on **Plate 42*a***: these date from the voyages of Leif the Lucky, A.D. 1000 and later; they may have covered the area shown in the map, or they may have been limited to the coast of Labrador, which was easily accessible from Greenland, discovered in 876; but they led to no permanent results, and left no trace upon the memory of Europe.

In the thirteenth century there was a great expansion of knowledge through contact with the vast Asiatic Empire of the Mongols (*see* above, p. 11, and **Plate 30–1**): Carpini (1246–7) and Rubruquis (1253–4) made their way to the court of the Great Khan at Karakorum; while the Venetian Marco Polo made the remarkable series of journeys shown on **Plate 30–1** and on **Plate 42*a***, and spent several years in the service of the Mongol Emperors, bringing back fuller knowledge of China and India than Europe had yet possessed. The rapid expansion of European trade in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries (*see* **Plates 32 and 33**) brought about a further enlargement of knowledge. Fra Mauro's map of 1459, which is given in outline in **Plate 42*d***, shows the extent of European knowledge of geography on the eve of the great explorations. The map shows little trace of the knowledge acquired by Marco Polo. The most striking change, shown by a comparison with Edrisi's map, is the clear suggestion that Africa can be circumnavigated. This was doubtless due to the explorations of the Portuguese, who had by that date found their way as far as Sierra Leone, and were bent on pushing on round Africa.

Fra Mauro, in 1459, still clings to the old idea that the earth was a round, flat disc surrounded by the ocean. The rapidity with which the revival of classical studies changed this notion is shown by a comparison of Fra Mauro's map with the globe constructed by Martin Behaim a generation later, in 1492. Behaim knows the trend of the west coast of Africa, the Gulf of Guinea, and the Cape of Good Hope. But he is still vague about the east coast of Africa, India, and China. He has, in fact, applied the fanciful notions then prevalent about the shape of Asia to the conception of the world as a sphere. This was the theory that sent Columbus westwards to find the Indies in the very year in which Behaim's globe was published.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE MAP

Nothing gives a clearer idea of the swiftness with which the world was unveiled during the century following the making of Behaim's globe than a comparison between it and two later globes of which simplified summaries are given—that of the German geographer Schöner (**Plate 43*c***), published in 1523, only thirty years after Columbus set sail; and that of the great Flemish geographer Mercator (**Plate 49*b***), published sixty years later, in 1587—on the eve of the Spanish Armada. Already, in Schöner's globe, the two American continents stand forth, and the outline of the Gulf of Mexico is clear; Schöner also knows the shape of India and the position of the Straits of Malacca, but east of that his knowledge stops. He shows a clear North-west passage—an invitation to explorers to find a new route to the East, which led to many adventurous voyages during the next half-century. Mercator, on the other hand, has closed up the North-west passage, which Frobisher's voyage of 1578 showed to be impracticable; and he shows only one narrow approach to the Pacific—the Straits of Magellan; south of which he assumes the existence of a vast southern land-mass, encircling the globe—the Terra Magna Australis, which throws a significant projection northwards in the region of Australia. This is probably the reflection of rumours which had reached the explorers of the existence of that undisclosed continent. Mercator has a pretty good idea of the shape of Asia—India, the Malay Peninsula and Archipelago, China, Japan, and Kamchatka; while in North America he knows the St. Lawrence estuary and the peninsula of California, the chief islands of the West Indies and the course of the Amazon. This was an immense advance of knowledge, achieved in a single century.

THE GREAT EXPLORATIONS

The unveiling of the world was the work of a multitude of explorers of many nations: only a few of the more epoch-marking voyages can be shown on the maps, or noted here.

Inspired by Prince Henry the Navigator, the Portuguese had been slowly feeling their way down the west coast of Africa during the first half of the fifteenth century, in the hope of finding an ocean-road to the East. In 1487 Bartholomew Diaz (with whom sailed Bartholomew Columbus, brother of Christopher) rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and reached the Great Fish River in Eastern Cape Colony: on his way home he sighted the Cape, which storms had prevented his seeing on the way out, and called it Tormentoso (**Plate 42*a***). The way was now open; and the King of Portugal spent the next ten years in preparing a great expedition to India, which set forth under Vasco da Gama in 1497.

The interval was used by others who believed that India could be more quickly reached by the westward track. The Genoese Christopher Columbus, provided with a fleet by Isabella of Spain, set sail in 1492 and found the Bahamas, Cuba, and Haiti: his route on this voyage is shown on **Plate 43*a***. In a second voyage he more fully explored the

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Greater and Lesser Antilles (1493–6); in a third he found Trinidad and the north coast of South America (1498–1500); in a fourth he followed the coast from Honduras to Darien (1502–4). He died without realising that he had discovered a new continent. In 1497 John Cabot, sailing with English ships provided by Henry VII, traced out a good deal of the coast of North America, from Greenland to Virginia: his route is shown on **Plate 43***a*.

Meanwhile Vasco da Gama's great voyage had been completed, 1498, and India had been reached (**Plate 43***a*): thenceforward Portuguese vessels regularly plied on this route, bringing the riches of the East to Lisbon. One of the earliest of these voyagers, Pedro Cabral, hit upon the coast of Brazil on his way home in 1500 (**Plate 43***a*). The Italian sailor Amerigo Vespucci (who had previously made two voyages for Spain) was thereupon commissioned by Portugal to explore the new discovery (1501–2), and his voyage disclosed the South American coast almost to the Rio de la Plata. This revealed the magnitude of the new continent—to which Amerigo's name came to be attached. These empty lands at first appeared a poor substitute for access to the Golden East. But in 1513 Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Panama, and revealed the Pacific, opening the route whereby later (1535) Pizarro found his way to the mines of Peru; and in 1519 Cortez discovered Mexico and its wealth.

In the East these years were as fruitful of discovery as in the West. Albuquerque, head of the Portuguese empire in the East, explored (with his lieutenants) the shores of the Indian Ocean; Sequeira and others found the Malacca Straits and the wealth of the Spice Islands: the Bay of Bengal was also mapped out by Portuguese voyagers. Finally, in 1519–22, Magellan, a Portuguese sailor in the Spanish service, undertook the circumnavigation of the globe; found, in the Straits that bear his name, a sea-passage to the Pacific; and discovered the Philippine Islands, where he died (1521). His lieutenant del Cano made a safe passage through the Malay Archipelago, and so by the Cape of Good Hope back to Europe.

These were the main discoveries of the generation 1492–1525. They are mostly shown on **Plate 43***a*, and they were the material for Schöner's globe of 1523. The east coast of Asia and the west coast of America had still to be revealed. They were gradually disclosed during the next half-century, the Asiatic coast mainly by Portuguese traders, the American coast by Spanish explorers. Drake's daring circumnavigation of 1576–7, which is shown on **Plate 49***a*, contributed very materially to this discovery, besides giving a shock to the Spanish American empire. He found that there was clear water south of Cape Horn; he also traced the western coast of both Americas, as far north as Oregon. Meanwhile French explorers had revealed much of the Atlantic coast of North America: in 1524 Verazzano, an Italian sailor in the service of Francis I, surveyed the coast from Cape Fear to Newfoundland; and in 1534 Jacques Cartier traced the coast of Labrador, the Straits of Belle Isle, the estuary of the St. Lawrence, and reached Quebec, thus establishing the French priority in Canada. Mercator's globe of 1587 records the results of these discoveries. Although a great deal of exploration had yet to be done—Australia, for example, had still to be revealed—the main land-masses of the world had been pretty clearly marked out, and lay open to the adventurous, when in 1588 the defeat of the Spanish Armada made the seas free to the world.

THE IBERIAN MONOPOLY, 1492–1588

During the century from 1492 to 1588 Spain claimed a monopoly of westward and Portugal of eastward dominion; and these claims were supported by awards of the Papacy, which was recognised, until the Reformation, as the supreme international authority. In 1454, when the route round Africa to the East seemed to be open before her, Portugal obtained a bull securing to her the monopoly of this route. In 1493, after Columbus's first voyage, it became necessary to revise this, and in a new bull an imaginary line was drawn north and south through the Atlantic; next year, 1494, the line was revised by agreement between Spain and Portugal (Treaty of Tordesillas) and fixed 375 leagues west of the Azores: this was confirmed by the Pope in 1506. Spanish activity in the Pacific necessitated a second line dividing that ocean, and this was fixed by the Treaty of Saragossa (1529); but Spain retained the Philippines on the Portuguese side of the line, and Portugal had to buy out the Spanish interests in the Moluccas or Spice Islands. These demarcations became meaningless when in 1580 Spain conquered Portugal, and the two empires were united for two generations. This was soon followed by the overthrow of the claim to monopoly, which had been frequently challenged by English, French, and Dutch raids, and was finally made untenable by the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

THE PORTUGUESE EMPIRE

The Portuguese trading empire in the East is shown both on **Plate 43** and (more fully) on **Plate 48***a*. It was in the main an affair of trading posts and forts, and was built upon the overthrow of the Arab trading ascendancy in the Indian Ocean; its great organiser was Affonso de Albuquerque, 1509–15, who established Portuguese supremacy in South Asiatic waters. The Empire included (**1**) all the Atlantic islands except the Canaries: these, especially Madeira, became genuine colonies; (**2**) a number of trading posts in Guinea, notably Elmina, a centre of the slave-trade; (**3**) a dominion in Angola with its centre at St. Paul de Loanda, which for a time enjoyed remarkable prosperity; (**4**) a series of forts and trading posts in Madagascar and Mauritius and along the east coast of Africa; (**5**) a strong post at Ormuz, at the mouth of the Persian Gulf, which blocked the old line of traffic through Mesopotamia; (**6**) a substantial colony at Goa (1511) on the west coast of India, which Portugal still retains, and which formed the centre of the Empire: it was the only "colony" (in the sense of a settlement from the mother-country) made by any European power in India; under it were a series of trading stations along the whole Malabar coast; (**7**) minor trading posts on the east coast of India; (**8**) a dominion over the coastal regions of Ceylon; (**9**) a strong post at Malacca, controlling the straits; (**10**) scattered possessions in the Malay Archipelago, of which the most important were the Moluccas or Spice Islands; (**11**) the island of Macao, whence a trade with China was carried on; there was also a factory in Japan. The Moluccas, which were the centre of the most lucrative trade, are more fully mapped in **Plate 59**, *c* and *d*. It should be noted that the Portuguese power on the Indian coasts (which brought about the first direct contact between Europe and India) was made possible by the fact that India was in one of its periodic intervals of confusion: the Mogul Empire was only established during the later part of the Portuguese period. In the West Portugal also possessed a thriving series of settlements on the coast of Brazil, which had been discovered by Cabral in 1500 and fell within the Tordesillas line. From 1531, when colonisation seriously began, the coastal districts of Brazil were divided into a series of captaincies, which are shown on **Plate 48***b*.

THE SPANISH EMPIRE

The Spanish Empire in the West Indies, Central and South America is shown in **Plates 48***b* (South America) and **50** (West Indies and Central America). Hispaniola (Haiti) was occupied in 1492, and from 1496 its chief town, Santo Domingo, was the capital of the Spanish dominions in the

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New World: by 1513 Hispaniola had 1,500 inhabitants. Porto Rico was conquered by Ponce de Leon in 1508; in 1509 Diego Columbus began the colonisation of Jamaica, which was later recognised as a possession of the Columbus family; in 1511 the conquest of Cuba was begun by Velasquez, and its towns of Santiago and Havana date from 1514 and 1515, Havana being the oldest city of importance in the New World. From these islands, and from Spain direct, adventurers spread rapidly over the coastlands of the Gulf of Mexico. In 1509 Opeda founded the colony of San Sebastian, later known as Darien, whence in 1513 Balboa started on the journey across the Isthmus that revealed the Pacific. But the great days of the Spanish Empire only began when its *conquistadores* discovered and subjugated the rich native empires of the Aztecs in Mexico and the Incas in Peru—both yielding great stores of the precious metals. Mexico was conquered by Cortez between 1519 and 1521, Peru by Pizarro between 1531 and 1541. The gold and silver extracted from the mines of these two countries between 1519 and 1609 have been estimated at £1,000,000,000. They became the chief source of Spain's strength, and the envy of the world. The extension of Spanish influence and settlement over the rest of Central and South America was slower. New Granada and Venezuela were settled between 1537 and 1550; Chile between 1540 and 1553; the first settlement on the River Plate (Buenos Aires) dates from 1580.

This vast dominion was rigidly controlled from Spain, where a Council of the Indies (initiated in 1524) exercised complete legislative and executive power. Emigration was encouraged, but was limited to orthodox Spanish Catholics. The number of emigrants during the sixteenth century varied between 1,000 and 2,000 per annum. The native populations were enslaved; and from 1517 large numbers of negro slaves were imported from West Africa. For local administration, the Empire was divided into two huge viceroyalties, under which were district governors. The viceroyalty of New Spain included the West Indies, Mexico, Central America, Venezuela, and the Philippines; the viceroyalty of Peru included Panama, New Granada, and the whole of the occupied regions of South America except Venezuela, Guiana, and Brazil. These divisions are shown in **Plate 48***b*. Spanish explorers also penetrated much of the southern part of the modern United States, at least two of them, Pineda (1519) and De Soto (1539), reaching and crossing the Mississippi, while Coronado (1540) discovered the Grand Cañon of Colorado, and Alarcon (1540) traced out the coast of California. But the settlement of Texas and California by Spain did not take place until the eighteenth century. The main centres of Spanish power, during the period of monopoly, were Hispaniola and Cuba, Mexico, and Peru. The later development of the Spanish American territories is dealt with below (p. 44).

THE ERA OF COLONISING ACTIVITY, 1588–1650

The Iberian monopoly was broken down by the attacks of Dutch, French, and English traders and pirates, often acting in conjunction, from the middle of the sixteenth century onwards. In this onslaught the chief part was played by the English sailors, especially Drake, whose daring plunder-voyage round the world is figured in **Plate 49**, and whose other raids may be followed in **Plate 50**. The Spanish Armada was designed to end these attacks; its disastrous defeat ended, instead, the Iberian monopoly.

From 1588 onwards followed a period when other European nations besides Spain and Portugal rushed in to make settlements in the new lands, or to open up trade with the old. The chief participants in this rivalry were the Dutch, the English, and the French; Denmark and Sweden and (later) Prussia and Austria also took a hand; Scotland tried an ill-fated enterprise on her own account in the settlement of Darien (1698). The chief scenes of this rivalry, which is illustrated by **Plates 49 and 59**, were (1) the West Indies, where all these nations were more or less engaged: **Plate 50** gives the date of every European settlement in the various islands; (2) West Africa, which was closely linked with the West Indies by the slave-trade: the dates of the early West African settlements are shown in **Plate 89***c*; (3) the North American continent, which is illustrated by **Plates 51, 52, and 63**: the colonisation of North America is fully dealt with in the next two sections of this Introduction; (4) India and Ceylon, together with the calling stations on the route thereto, illustrated in **Plates 30***a*, **65, 80 and 82–3**; and (5) the Malay Archipelago and the Far East, **Plate 59**, *c* and *d*.

THE DUTCH COLONIES

Down to the middle of the seventeenth century the Dutch were the most energetic and successful of the rivals. Their affairs were under the control of two companies, one for the East and one for the West, backed by Government. They waged direct war against the now united Spanish-Portuguese Empire, and most of their gains were at its expense. The fact that they were at open war with Spain from the time of their revolt against Philip II until 1648 gave them an advantage over England (at peace with Spain from 1608). In the West they seized Elmina and other slaving stations on the Guinea coast (**Plate 89***c*); they held for a time the Portuguese possessions in Angola; they took Curaçoa (1634) and other islands as bases for a smuggling trade with Spanish America (**Plate 50**); they settled in Guiana, and occupied a large part of Brazil for thirty years (1624–54) (**Plate 48***b*); and on the North American mainland they occupied the Hudson Valley (*see* below, p. 62, and **Plate 52***a*). In the East and on the route thereto they occupied St. Helena, planted a colony at the Cape of Good Hope (1651) (*see* below, p. 52), took the island of Mauritius, acquired possession of the greater part of Ceylon, and planted several factories on the mainland of India, all at the expense of the Portuguese (**Plate 49***a*). But their chief interest was in the Malay Archipelago, whence they expelled the Portuguese, made themselves masters of the Spice Islands, and generally established their control over a great part of the archipelago, with their capital at Batavia in Java. This empire they still retain; it was extended and consolidated in the nineteenth century. Farther east they dominated the trade with China and Japan, and mastered the island of Formosa (1642). Their Eastern dominions were divided into six governments: Java, Amboyna, Ternate, Ceylon, Macassar, and the Cape of Good Hope. Dutch sailors, notably Tasman, whose voyages are shown on **Plate 49***c*, also discovered Australia and New Zealand; but no attempt was made to settle in these fertile lands, because the resources and population of the United Provinces were not great enough to make large schemes of settlement possible.

THE ENGLISH COLONIES

The English were less active than the Dutch in trade, but much more active in colonisation. During the first half of the seventeenth century they made plantations in Barbados (1624), in half a dozen of the little Leeward Islands (1625–50), in Old Providence off the Nicaragua coast (1630), where they established a vague protectorate over the Musquito Indians; they also planted themselves at Surinam in Guiana (1640), and at Belize in Honduras (1638), and they were active in buccaneering and smuggling. For these settlements *see* **Plate 50**. On the continent of North America they established two important groups of colonies, separated by the Dutch settlement on the Hudson: a southern group consisting of Virginia and Maryland; and a northern group consisting of the New England colonies.

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These are shown on **Plate 52**, and will be more fully dealt with in Section V of this Introduction. In West Africa (*see* **Plate 89***c*) they planted factories on the Gambia and at Cormantine on the Gold Coast (1618). In the East the East India Company, founded in 1600, was much less successful than its Dutch rival, with which at first it co-operated. In 1623 (Massacre of Amboyna) the English were expelled by the Dutch from the lucrative trade of the Spice Islands, and thereafter they concentrated their attention upon the mainland of India. Here they had to fight for a foothold with the Portuguese, whom they repeatedly defeated and drove out of Ormuz (1622). In 1616 they were licensed by the Mogul Emperor to open a factory at Surat, which remained their headquarters for half a century. In 1632, after fighting with the Dutch, they opened a factory at Masulipatam on the east coast; in 1639 Fort St. George (Madras) was built; and in 1650 a factory was opened at Hooghly in Bengal.

THE FRENCH COLONIES

The French, distracted by internal disorder and European war, were much less active. In the West Indies they occupied the fine islands of Martinique and Guadeloupe in 1636, and made a settlement in Guiana, with Cayenne as its capital, in 1624: *see* **Plate 50**. In West Africa they planted a fort on the Senegal (1626): *see* **Plate 89***c*. In North America they began the settlement of Canada, colonising Port Royal in Acadia (Nova Scotia) in 1605 and Quebec in 1608: their great pioneer Champlain explored much of the Great Lakes, and thus found his way into the Central Plain: *see* **Plate 52**, and p. 48 below. Although they started an East India Company, it had achieved nothing by 1650.

MINOR COLONISING PEOPLES

Of the minor colonising peoples, the **Danes** planted factories at Tranquebar and Serampur (1616) in India, opened two factories on the Gold Coast of West Africa, and later (1671) acquired the island of St. Thomas in the West Indies; the **Swedes** planted a colony on the Delaware in 1639, but it was conquered by the Dutch of New Amsterdam in 1655. The attempts of Prussia and Austria to get a share of tropical trade belong to the eighteenth century, but they never amounted to much. The Dutch, the French, and the English were the only serious competitors. By 1650 they had almost broken up the Portuguese power in the East; they had all planted themselves in the West Indies and in Guiana, but had made no serious impact upon the Spanish Empire; and they had all founded colonies in the unoccupied area of North America.

SYSTEMATIC COLONISATION AND COLONIAL WAR, 1650–1763

From 1650 onwards (the wars of religion being over) the European States more and more concentrated their attention upon extra-European trade and empire. This was a period of systematic colonisation in America, especially on the part of France and England; the Dutch, content with what they had got, gradually fell into the background. It was also a period of war for colonial possessions, which grew in intensity until it culminated in the fierce duel of the Seven Years' War, 1756–63.

RAPID FRENCH EXPANSION

Under Louis XIV and Colbert, and afterwards under Louis XV, the power of the French monarchy was put effectively at the service of external trade and empire. Canada was strengthened by systematic emigration; between 1663 and 1673 the population rose from 2,500 to 10,000. Agriculture was developed; iron and copper mines were opened; the fur trade was immensely developed. Joliet and Marquette, La Salle, Radisson, and other explorers opened out the vast plain of the Mississippi and claimed it for France. A series of forts and trading posts were founded on the Great Lakes and along the course of the Mississippi. In 1718, as a result of La Salle's explorations, New Orleans was founded as the centre of a new colony of Louisiana which was meant to include the whole Mississippi Valley. Had this been achieved, the English would have been limited to the Atlantic coast. For all this development, *see* **Plate 63**, and below, p. 61. In the West Indies (*see* **Plate 50**) the French sugar islands became prosperous, and Haiti (half of Hispaniola, the first West Indian possession of Spain) was acquired in 1697. The comradeship between French and English in these waters came to an end, and there was a sharp little war between them in the Leeward Islands in 1666–7. In West Africa Gorée was taken from the Dutch in 1677 and a factory was planted in Dahomey (1668): *see* **Plate 89***c*. In India the French became more active, though their East India Company was not prosperous until the eighteenth century. Pondicherry, near Madras (1674), and Chandernagore in Bengal (1676), were their principal factories.

SYSTEMATIC ENGLISH DEVELOPMENT

The English, under Cromwell and Charles II, worked out a new colonial policy and made great acquisitions of territory. New colonies were planted, and the conquest of the Dutch settlement on the Hudson gave them a continuous territory which grew rapidly in population. The Hudson Bay Company was founded in 1670, and Acadia (after several attacks) was finally torn from France in 1713. All these developments are dealt with more fully in Section V below. The position in the West Indies was strengthened by the seizure of Jamaica (1655) and the occupation of the Bahama Islands (1670). The West African trading posts were placed under the control of a chartered company. In India the East India Company had become immensely prosperous, and was strong enough even to wage war with the Mogul Empire (1686). By its new charter, 1661, it was given the right to raise troops and coin money. In 1668 it acquired its first territorial possession in full sovereignty—the island of Bombay, which came to Charles II as part of the dowry of his Portuguese wife; and Calcutta was founded in 1696.

COLONIAL WARS

The colonial wars of this period were almost continuous, and the treaties by which they were terminated made important changes in the distribution of oversea territory. There were three wars between the Dutch and the English: the second of these ended in the Treaty of Breda (1667), whereby the Dutch yielded their North American colonies to England, and obtained in return the British territory of Surinam in Guiana. All the wars of Louis XIV had some reaction in the colonies, and there was a special Anglo-French war in the West Indies in 1666–7. The results of these conflicts were embodied in the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713. The situation left by this treaty is shown in **Plate 59***a*.

The half-century from 1713 to 1763 was pre-eminently a period of fierce colonial rivalry between England and France, with Spain more and more clearly enrolled on the French side, and the Dutch half-heartedly seconding the English though without active intervention. The main fields of this conflict were North America and India. The vital struggle for the control of the North American continent is illustrated by **Plates 63 and 66**, and is discussed in Section V (p. 64) of this Introduction; the struggle in India is illustrated by **Plate 65***a* and discussed in Section IV, p. 55. But there was also a great deal of fighting in the West Indies, where England acquired Tobago and most of the Windward Islands (Dominica, St. Vincent, Granada, and the Grenadines, *see* **Plate 50**); also in West Africa. The outcome of all this fighting is shown in **Plate 64**. It left England the supreme colonial power in the world.

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THE ERA OF REVOLUTION, 1765–1830

The period from 1765 to 1830 was an era of revolution in Western civilisation: it was the time of the democratic revolution, the industrial revolution, the humanitarian revolution; and it left a profound impress upon the external features as well as upon the motives and methods of European oversea expansion.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION: THE SECOND BRITISH EMPIRE

It began with the conflict which ended in the independence of the United States. This struggle, which may be followed in **Plate 66** and is discussed in Section V, brought to an end the first British Empire and reduced the English possessions in the West Indies (**Plate 50**). But a new empire promptly began to arise in its place. The American war led to an immediate expansion of English settlement in Canada, hitherto almost purely French: the United Empire Loyalists streamed into Canada (1783) and gave a start to the colonies of New Brunswick (1784) and Ontario (1791) (*see* below, p. 49). Moreover, while the American struggle was raging Captain Cook was exploring the Pacific, mapping out Australia and New Zealand and making possible the rise of a new British Empire. His voyages are shown on **Plate 64**. In 1788 the first settlement was made at Botany Bay and the history of Australia began: *see* **Plate 87**; for the development of Australia, *see* below, p. 50. In 1789 the plantation of a colony for freed slaves at Sierra Leone (**Plate 89c**) at once opened a new era of expansion for Britain in West Africa and gave evidence of the adoption of a new attitude towards the backward races.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The outbreak of the French Revolutionary Wars brought a fresh series of changes. They cut off France and her continental allies from the extra-European world, and made it difficult for them to retain their colonial empires; while at the same time they left the whole non-European world at the mercy of the preponderant British navy. The French oversea empire almost came to an end when Haiti revolted and became an independent negro republic (1791); when the remaining French West Indian Islands were taken by the English fleet (1793–4), though they were to be restored in 1815; and when Napoleon sold Louisiana and all the wide territory west of the Mississippi to the United States (1803). The Spanish colonies in South and Central America revolted when Napoleon subjugated Spain (1808), and were never restored to obedience (**Plate 76**). The Dutch lost Guiana (1796), Cape Colony (1796 and 1806; *see* below, p. 52), Ceylon (1795), and (for a time (1811)) Java, all occupied by British forces after the Dutch became dependent allies of France. Thus, at the end of the revolutionary wars, only shreds remained of the colonial empires created during the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries (**Plate 77**).

But the new British Empire grew more rapidly than at any earlier period as a result of the war. The conquests of Wellesley in India (*see* below, p. 56) were directly due to the wars. He also annexed the Dutch possession of Ceylon (1795), which was from 1798 administered separately from the Indian Empire. Mauritius was taken in 1810 and the Seychelles in 1794. Cape Colony was occupied in 1795 and, though temporarily restored in 1801, was reoccupied in 1803: the development of South Africa is traced below, p. 52. In the West Indies all that had been lost in 1783 was regained, and more: Trinidad was taken from Spain in 1802 and British Honduras was finally secured. Canada defended herself successfully against the United States in 1812, and in so doing strengthened her own national sentiment. In Australia the new settlements took root during this period, the first free settlers were added to the convicts, and sheep-rearing was begun. When the revolutionary wars ended, the British Empire was left as a varied and scattered dominion in all the seas and on all the continents; it seemed to have become the heir to all the colonising work of all the European peoples.

ECLIPSE OF EMPIRES

The years following 1815 confirmed and completed these decisions. Spanish America successfully resisted the attempts of the mother-country at reconquest (**Plate 76**). Mexico became independent in 1821; Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, San Salvador, and Costa Rica were organised as separate republics in Central America; Venezuela and New Granada formed the republic of Colombia in 1819, which divided in 1830 into the three republics of New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador; Chile became independent in 1818, the Argentine in 1816, Uruguay in 1828, Paraguay in 1811, and Peru in 1821, while in 1825 Upper Peru became the separate republic of Bolivia, taking its name from the liberator, Bolivar. In 1819 the United States acquired Florida from Spain (*see* below, p. 66), and of the vast Spanish Empire there only remained Cuba and Porto Rico in the West Indies, the Canaries in the Atlantic, and the Philippines with the Ladrones and the Carolines in the Pacific. In 1822 Brazil declared its independence of Portugal; and nothing remained of the Portuguese Empire save the Azores, Madeira, and the Cape Verde Islands, the decaying settlements of Angola and Mozambique on the west and east coasts of Africa, Goa and Diu in India, and Macao off the south coast of China. The French were left with Guadeloupe and Martinique in the West Indies, a foothold on the Senegal in West Africa, the island of Réunion in the Indian Ocean, and the isolated factories of Pondicherry and Chandernagore in India: mere relics of the past. The Dutch regained Java and were left with a compact empire in the Malay Archipelago. But in 1819 England compensated herself for the loss of Java by acquiring Singapore; and in 1824, under agreement with the Dutch, she obtained Malacca and a protectorate over the Malay Peninsula, henceforward known as the Straits Settlements: *see* **Plate 82–3**. Thus the revolutionary period had compensated Britain for the loss of the United States by giving her an empire of extraordinary range, and leaving her beyond all rivalry the supreme colonial power of the world. The new distribution of oversea power is shown in **Plate 77**.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY, 1830–78

During the middle period of the nineteenth century, when the European peoples were engrossed in the Nationalist and Liberal movements, and when, also, belief in the value or permanence of colonial possessions had almost vanished, most of the European peoples made no attempt to obtain possessions outside Europe. Apart from the expansion of the United States, which is dealt with in Section V, three Powers only played any active part in the extension of European civilisation over the globe: France, Russia, and Britain.

BEGINNING OF A NEW FRENCH EMPIRE

France, between 1830 and 1848, conquered the Turkish province of Algeria in North Africa (*see* **Plate 88**). This gave her a large block of Mohammedan subjects; and, taken in conjunction with the contemporaneous advance of Russia in Central Asia, and the extension of British power in India, it formed the first serious advance by Europe at the expense of Islam. The rapid subjugation of the whole Mohammedan world outside the Turkish Empire by these three Powers was one of the outstanding facts of nineteenth-century history. In 1862, after a war with Annam brought on by the maltreatment of French missionaries, France acquired the little province of Cochin-China, and thus opened a new field of advance in the Far East (*see*

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Plate 82–3). In 1840 she was only prevented by British action from annexing New Zealand ; she found some compensation in the Pacific by the annexation of Tahiti and the Marquesas Islands in 1842 and of New Caledonia in 1855 : *see* **Plate 83***a*. Thus in three fields France showed during this period a revival of her old imperial ambitions.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE

Russia had long been an expanding power (**Plate 82–3**), but it was only in the nineteenth century that her extra-European expansion brought her into conflict and rivalry with other European peoples. Her vast Asiatic empire had been begun as early as 1581, by the settlement of Siberia by bands of Cossacks. Within the following sixty years Russian settlers had spread themselves over the whole of Siberia as far as the Pacific and had subjugated the thinly scattered tribes of this region. At the end of the seventeenth century Kamchatka was occupied, and the Kurile Islands between 1710 and 1720. This rapid process of occupation was the work of undirected settlers, not the result of deliberate conquest. Organised government followed later. In 1708 Siberia, which then contained twenty-six towns, was formed into a separate province, and under Catherine II it was divided into three governments. In the nineteenth century Russia entered upon the deliberate military conquest of Central Asia. The beginning of these ambitions may be dated to Alexander I, who discussed with Napoleon the project of a combined Franco-Russian advance upon India ; from this moment the Russian advance was regarded with dread by British and Indian statesmen. It had two directions : (1) through the Caucasus, involving pressure upon Turkey and Persia, (2) through the region of the steppes and Turkestan. In the Caucasus some advance had already been made before 1815 : the process was completed in a series of wars, by which all the Caucasian peoples were subjugated by 1884. In Central Asia a vast region of steppe-lands, inhabited by wandering Kirghiz and Turkoman tribes, was conquered between 1815 and the Crimean War. During the next twenty-five years Eastern Turkestan was conquered, the Khanates of Bokhara and Khiva being annexed in 1868 and 1873 respectively. These conquests made Russia, like Britain and France, a great Mohammedan power : they covered the area from which had come the Moslem invaders of India on the one hand and of Asia Minor and Europe on the other. Russian agents were also at intervals active at the courts of Persia and Afghanistan and this was the source of the alarms which led the British Government into two disastrous Afghan wars. For all this development *see* **Plate 82–3**.

BRITISH EXPANSION

During the same period the expansion of the British Empire went on automatically, stimulated by the immense activity of British trade, the widespread labours of missionaries, and the existence of a great surplus of population for whom new homes had to be found. In Australia the interior was fully explored : the routes of the chief explorers, almost all of whom belonged to this period, are shown on **Plate 87**. The six colonies were organised, and all were endowed with full self-governing rights ; and the discovery of gold (1850) brought a rush of immigrants. New Zealand (**Plate 87***a*) was annexed in 1839, and systematically colonised under the direction of a New Zealand Company in England. In Canada (**Plate 78–9**) new colonies were established in Manitoba in 1870 and in British Columbia in 1871 ; the boundary with the United States was settled by a series of treaties and awards which are shown on **Plate 78–9** and its Insets, and will be more fully discussed in Section V of this Introduction ; and in 1867 the whole group of colonies was federated as the Dominion of Canada. South Africa (*see* **Plate 89**, *a*, *b*, and *d*) underwent a vast expansion beyond the narrow limits of the Dutch colony, mainly as a result of the Great Trek of the Boer farmers in 1834 : the development of South Africa is more fully traced below (p. 52). In the rest of Africa the work of exploration was carried out mainly by British explorers (*see* **Plate 88**). In West Africa the Danish forts were purchased by Britain in 1850 and the Dutch forts in 1871 ; a war with Ashanti in 1873 established British supremacy over the Gold Coast and its hinterland ; and in 1861 the occupation of Lagos began the establishment of British power in Nigeria. In other regions of Africa, notably the Cameroons, Zanzibar, and Damaraland, the native peoples petitioned to be taken under British protection, but their requests were refused. Nevertheless, British trade and missions were predominant over the whole African coast. In the Pacific, also, British traders and missionaries were everywhere predominant, and there were many demands for annexation. In 1874 the important group of Fiji was annexed (*see* **Plate 83***e*) ; but the home Government was as yet unwilling to extend its responsibilities.

THE RACE FOR COLONIES, 1875–1914

The last quarter of the nineteenth century was occupied by an eager rush for colonial possessions by the chief European Powers, who had realised that the control of the extra-European world was slipping out of their hands. There were three main fields of this rivalry, Africa, the Pacific, and the Far East.

THE PARTITION OF AFRICA

It was in Africa that the competition was fiercest because Africa was the only important region still mainly unclaimed. In 1875 the great bulk of the continent was almost untouched by European influence : the extent of its resources had just been disclosed by Livingstone and others, notably H. M. Stanley, who returned in 1878 from the discovery of the Congo and its riches. Before the end of the century the whole continent except Abyssinia, Tripoli, and Morocco had been brought under the control of one or other of the European Powers.

The partition of Africa is illustrated by **Plate 88**. It began when Leopold II of Belgium despatched H. M. Stanley (1879) to organise the Congo Valley, nominally as an international domain under the International African Association, which Leopold had organised in 1876. This was the origin of the Congo Free State ; but as both France and Portugal put forward claims the matter had to be settled by a European Conference at Berlin, 1884–5, which defined the boundaries and powers of the Congo Free State, and laid down the rules for annexations. Before the Congress met, however, the rush had begun ; and it will be convenient to take the colonising Powers in turn.

France was the most active of them. In 1881 she annexed Tunis as an addition to her existing colony of Algeria. From Senegal, which she retained from her earlier empire, she pushed rapidly eastwards, and from Algeria southwards, imposing scores of protectorate treaties upon native States, until she had acquired almost the whole of the Sahara and the Sudan, and threatened to reduce the British West African colonies to mere enclaves. She also established her power over a large area north of the Congo. The limits of these possessions were fixed by agreements between France and Britain in 1890 and 1898 and by a Franco-German Agreement of 1894. But the extension of French power eastwards nearly led to war with Britain when Marchand occupied Fashoda, on the Upper Nile, in 1897 : this issue was decided by the agreement of 1898. France also conquered the great island of Madagascar in 1883–5, which was recognised in the Anglo-French Agreement of 1890. In twenty years these activities created the vast and almost continuous French empire shown in **Plate 88**.

Germany started late and had no existing footholds to work from. In 1884 she declared protectorates over

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South-west Africa, Togoland, the Cameroons, and East Africa (Tanganyika). These acquisitions were recognised and their boundaries determined by an Anglo-German Convention in 1890, whereby Britain obtained Zanzibar, but ceded Heligoland.

Italy obtained Eritrea in 1883, and strove to extend her power over Abyssinia, but had to accept defeat in 1896 ; in 1889 she also planted herself in Somaliland. These acquisitions were recognised and their boundaries determined by an Anglo-Italian Treaty of 1891.

Portugal, basing her claim on her ancient possessions, strove to establish her power across the continent from Angola to Mozambique, but this was resisted by Britain, because it would have prevented her annexation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland ; Portugal accepted the position in a treaty of 1891 whereby the limits of her territory were defined.

The most valuable acquisitions of this period were made by **Britain**, already so richly endowed. The most remarkable development of British power in this period resulted from the occupation of Egypt in 1881 (*see* **Plate 88***b*), but the position in Egypt was anomalous, and was not regularised until after the Great War. The Egyptian Sudan, however, conquered mainly by British arms (1894–7), was in name jointly occupied, but in reality controlled by Britain. Sierra Leone and the Gold Coast were extended inland under the agreements with France. The rich territory of Nigeria was secured by a chartered company, and this extensive colony was also defined by the Anglo-French treaties. British Somaliland, facing Aden, was occupied in 1884. British East Africa was occupied in 1885, and its limits were defined in the Anglo-German Convention of 1890. The most valuable developments of British territory took place in the south. Southern Bechuanaland was annexed, and the rest of that extensive but desert region brought under a protectorate in 1885. Matabeleland and Mashonaland, later known as Rhodesia, were brought under a protectorate in 1888, and placed under a chartered company in 1889 ; Nyasaland, after a sharp dispute with Portugal, was declared a British protectorate in 1890. These were among the most valuable territories on the African continent, and included much of the land most suitable for white settlers. After the Boer War of 1899–1902 the Orange Free State and the Transvaal were also annexed, but they were granted full self-governing powers in 1907 and became parts of the Union of South Africa in 1910.

This completed the partition of Africa, apart from Abyssinia, Tripoli, and Morocco.

As **Morocco** formed part of a single homogeneous area, of which Algeria and Tunis were the remainder, it became the object of French ambition to round off her North African empire by acquiring it, especially as its incessant unrest had reactions in Algeria. But Morocco commanded the entrance to the Mediterranean ; it directly faced Spain ; and Britain, Germany, and Spain all had trading interests in the country. In 1903 a Franco-British Agreement recognised the prior concern of France with Morocco, in return for the acceptance of British supremacy in Egypt : a secret treaty of the same year provided that if or when France annexed Morocco, the north-west should go to Spain. In 1905 Germany protested against French action in Morocco, and a Conference was held at Algeçiras in 1906 : it determined that Morocco must remain independent, but recognised the prior French interest in the country. In 1911 there was a fresh dispute, which ended in the recognition of French control, at the price of the cession to Germany of part of the French Congo. In 1924–5 there was a serious rebellion of the Riffi tribes of the north-west, which was only overcome by joint French and Spanish action.

Tripoli remained nominally a part of the Turkish Empire, until 1911 when Italy occupied it, at the cost of a war with Turkey. In the whole of Africa **Abyssinia** now alone remained independent. It is the principal centre of the slave-trade, which European influence has as yet been unable wholly to suppress in Central Africa.

THE EUROPEAN POWERS IN ASIA

During the same period the European Powers were also active in Asia and in the Pacific, and in the latter sphere they were joined by the United States. These spheres are illustrated in **Plate 82–3**. In Central Asia the advance of **Russia** continued : she occupied Merv in 1884, and it was not till 1898 that her frontier with Afghanistan was finally delimited in the Pamirs. In 1907 an Anglo-Russian Agreement delimited spheres of influence for the two Powers in Persia : these are shown on the map. But it was in the Far East that the most important events occurred ; they were due mainly to the decrepitude of China. In 1885, after a war with China, **France** extended her control over the whole of Annam and Tonking. In 1893 France was also drawn into conflict with Siam : frontiers in this region were delimited by an Anglo-French Agreement of 1896. In 1895 **Japan** defeated China, acquired Formosa and the Pescadores Islands, and was about to occupy Corea and Liao-tung when she was forbidden to do so by Russia, France, and Germany. In 1897 **Germany** seized Kiao-chau, **Russia** Port Arthur, and **Britain** Wei-hai-wei. China was about to be partitioned into spheres of influence when the process was stopped by the Boxer Rising of 1900 and the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of 1902. But in 1900 Russia occupied Manchuria, from which she directly threatened Peking. This led to the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–5, in which Russia was defeated. The area of this conflict is shown in **Plate 84***c*. Five years later Japan annexed Corea.

THE PARTITION OF THE PACIFIC

The final scene of partition was the Pacific. This is illustrated by **Plate 83***a*. In 1881 a British Chartered Company annexed North Borneo. In 1884 Germany annexed North-east New Guinea and the Bismarck Archipelago ; Britain responded, under pressure from Australia, by annexing the south-east of the island. In 1886 an Anglo-German Treaty assigned the Marshalls and some other islands to Germany, who agreed not to interfere elsewhere in the Pacific. Between 1886 and the end of the century more than 100 islands in the South Pacific were annexed by Britain and placed under the administration of New Zealand. In 1898 the United States annexed Hawaii, where her influence had long been dominant. In 1899 Samoa was divided between Germany and the United States, and in the same year, as a result of the Spanish-American War, the United States annexed the Philippines and Guam, while Germany took the Caroline, Pelew, and Mariana groups. The more important of these groups are illustrated by Inset-maps on **Plate 82–3**. The whole of the Pacific was now partitioned : indeed, the world was partitioned, so far as it was partitionable. In the whole world only Turkey (with Arabia and Mesopotamia), Abyssinia, Persia, Afghanistan, and China remained exempt from the control or influence of European civilisation ; and Japan was the only genuinely independent Power not of European stock. This was the state of things on the eve of the Great War ; it is illustrated in **Plate 92**. The Great War came at the moment when Europe had completed the expansion of her influence over the globe.

THE GREAT WAR AND THE SETTLEMENT

The expansion of the European peoples had gradually extended the range of their wars, so that they affected many parts of the world. But the Great War of 1914–18 was the first in which all the peoples of the earth were directly or indirectly involved. And, just as the Treaty of Vienna (1815) was the first attempt to settle the general affairs of Europe, so the treaties which followed the Great

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War were the first attempt to settle the affairs of the whole world.

During the War the Central Powers were cut off from all contact with their outlying possessions. The German colonies were all conquered by the Allies during the first two years of the War: German South West Africa was occupied by a force from the Union of South Africa; German East Africa was conquered, after a brilliant resistance, by British and South African forces with the co-operation of the Portuguese on the south and the Belgians on the east; the Kameruns and Togoland were occupied by British and French forces; the German possessions in the Pacific were occupied by expeditions from Australia and New Zealand; and Kiao-chau (in China) was captured by a Japanese and British force. The outlying territories of Turkey were also cut off, though only after hard fighting. Arabia asserted its freedom, under the lead of the Sherif of Mecca, supported by British forces and money. Palestine and Mesopotamia were invaded by British and Indian forces: these campaigns are illustrated by **Plate 96***c*. The resistance was stubborn: its collapse was one of the determining factors of the War.

In the peace settlements these territories were all taken from the defeated Powers, and transferred to the victorious Powers. But they were not transferred unconditionally: they were given under "mandates," as trusts on behalf of the civilised world, subject to regular reports to, and supervision by, the League of Nations: a form of territorial control new to history. The redistribution thus effected is shown in **Plate 96**. German South West Africa was given under mandate to the Union of South Africa, with which (subject to the consent of the League) it will probably, in course of time, be fully incorporated. The main bulk of German East Africa (now known as Tanganyika Territory) was given under mandate to Great Britain: a small area on the west being added to the Belgian Congo. The Kameruns were given under mandate to France, with the exception of a narrow strip which was attached to British Nigeria. Togoland was divided between France and Britain. German New Guinea and the Bismarck Archipelago were given under mandate to Australia, and the German part of Samoa to New Zealand. The small archipelagoes in the Northern Pacific were given under mandate to Japan; the nitrate-bearing island of Nauru to Great Britain. The German fort of Kiao-chau in the Chinese province of Shantung was given to Japan, but later, under agreement, restored to China. Thus the whole of the German colonial empire was divided among the victorious Allies, though not in absolute possession. Italy, alone among the greater European Allies, obtained no share of the colonial spoils of war. She was compensated, by treaty with Britain (1925), (*a*) by an extension of the boundaries of Tripoli on the side of Egypt, and (*b*) by the cession of Jubaland, the part of British East Africa lying next to Eritrea.

The territories taken from Turkey in Asia were similarly disposed of. Arabia became independent, under the Sherif of Mecca, who took the title of King of Hejaz, but was subsequently expelled by the Wahabi people of Central Arabia (1925): Arabia, however, remains one of the few regions of the world not subject to European control. Palestine was assigned as a "national home" for the Jews, under a British mandate. Transjordania, the desert region east of Palestine, was created an independent emirate under a son of the King of Hejaz, subject to British protectorate. Mesopotamia, or Iraq, was placed under a British mandate; it has been organised as a separate State with a king and parliament of its own, and the mandate is to be withdrawn as soon as it is securely founded. A dispute with Turkey regarding the northern boundaries of Iraq (the point at issue being whether the vilayet of Mosul was to be regarded as part of Iraq or of Turkey) was referred in 1925 to the League of Nations, and by it settled, without Turkish assent, in favour of Iraq. Syria and Western Mesopotamia were assigned under mandate to France. The limits of these Western Asiatic mandates, and the complicated racial problems which beset them, are illustrated by an Inset map on **Plate 95***a*. Time and experience will alone show whether the system of mandatory control will work well, but it is the first attempt to introduce a method of common regulation of the control by European nations of non-European territories. Two main conditions are attached to every mandate: (1) the protection of native rights; (2) freedom of access for the traders of all nations. Mandatory territories are divided into three classes: (1) those which may be expected ultimately to become independent States; e.g. Iraq; (2) those which may be expected to be absorbed as part of the mandatory State under the same laws; e.g. South-west Africa; (3) those which may be expected to remain for an indefinite period in a state of tutelage; e.g. the Kameruns.

THE EFFECTS OF EUROPEAN EXPANSION

The result of four centuries of expansion by the leading European nations has been, in effect, to divide the non-European world into two great groups of States. (**A**) Four huge world-states, whose interests range over the globe, and which control between them nearly two-thirds of the world's land-surface and nearly two-thirds of its population. These four are the British Empire, the United States, the French Empire, and the Russian Empire; the minor European empires of Italy and Belgium belong to the same category. The French Empire, mostly of very recent origin, and the Russian Empire, which is continuous and on the whole homogeneous, have already been as fully discussed as space allows. The British Empire, which is spread over every continent and ocean and embraces one-fourth of the area and population of the world, will be dealt with in the next section. The United States, now the world's wealthiest power and industrial leader, wholly created by the expansion of Europe, will be dealt with in Section V. (**B**) There are only two groups of States not included in these giant empires: (*a*) the independent States of the ancient East—Japan, China, Siam, Persia, Turkey, and Egypt; and (*b*) the States of Latin America, which have sprung from the Spanish and Portuguese Empires.

SECTION IV

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

The British Empire, which embraces more than one-fourth of the area, and more than one-fourth of the population, of the world, is the most remarkable product of the expansion of Europe during the last four centuries. It is spread over all the continents and oceans, and includes peoples of almost every race, and of every stage of development. It consists of a very large number of separately organised communities, under every variety of government, from the military despotism of a garrison town such as Gibraltar to the complete democratic autonomy of Canada or Australia. The stages in the growth of this unparalleled complex of human societies have been indicated in the last section: it has inherited much of the work of all the colonising and trading peoples. But it is necessary to

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comment more fully upon the historical geography of the principal members or groups within this fellowship of diverse societies. The present section is accordingly devoted to a series of notes upon the chief members of the British Empire outside Europe in the following order: (1) Canada and Newfoundland; (2) Australia and New Zealand with their dependencies; (3) South Africa; (4) India and Ceylon.

CANADA AND NEWFOUNDLAND

GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS

It is hard to separate the history of Canada from that of the United States. The two countries appear, at each stage, on the same map. They have from the first always been connected, and always contrasted. As the physical map (**Plate 51**) shows, they share between them each of the great natural regions into which North America falls —the coastal plain, the Appalachian Mountain belt, the great central plain, the Rocky Mountain belt, and the Pacific slope. They are separated, for the greater part, by a purely artificial line. Yet, by accident rather than design, this artificial division of the central plain corresponds with a real division: it separates the basins of the rivers that drain into the Gulf of Mexico from the basins of those that drain into Hudson's Bay. And the physical map shows another contrast which largely explains the different history of the two countries. The United States offers to the navigator who comes from the Atlantic (especially south of the Hudson) a broad and fertile plain, with wide inlets and rivers, but with no clear passage (except the Hudson) through the ranges of the Appalachian Mountains: hence the immigrants to this coast settled down contentedly and did not for a long time spread inland. But Canada offers a rocky and forbidding coast, broken by a huge estuary which cuts through the mountains, and tempts the settler to journey on from its infertile shores to the chain of huge inland lakes which it drains; and these lakes lie in the midst of the great central plain, near the sources of the great Mississippi River system. Hence it was that the French, who settled in Canada, went much farther afield than the English during the first century of colonisation, and were mainly responsible for the early exploration of the interior. While the English settlers farther south were hugging the coast, Champlain as early as 1615 had explored much of the Great Lakes; and later in the century Joliet and Père Marquette and the Sieur de la Salle had explored the Mississippi and the Ohio, reached the Gulf of Mexico, and dotted stations through the great plains long before the English had found their way across the Alleghanies. These explorations are described elsewhere (p. 60) because they concern the history of the United States rather than that of Canada; but they shed an illuminating light upon the conditions in which Canada took its rise.

THE FRENCH PERIOD

Plate 52 illustrates the early period of settlement and the explorations of Cartier (1534–5 and 1541) and Champlain (1604–35). Throughout its history, French America was sharply divided into two blocks, linked only by water and on land separated by a wilderness of trackless forest: (1) Acadia (Nova Scotia and New Brunswick), where Champlain made the first European settlement in North America at St. Croix in 1604, transferred in 1605 to the better site of Port Royal (Annapolis) on the Bay of Fundy; (2) the riverine colony of Quebec, started by Champlain in 1608, and long confined to a narrow fringe of holdings along the river: beyond Montreal (founded 1642) there were only scattered fur-trading posts and mission-stations, chiefly of the Jesuits; the chief of these are noted on the map. It was the river colony which was the heart of the French settlements. Acadia was never much more than a bastion guarding the entrance to the St. Lawrence. As such it was exposed to repeated attacks from New England. It was twice captured (1628 and 1654) during the seventeenth century and finally occupied in 1710 and ceded to England by the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713. Even then, however, France retained Cape Breton Island and erected on it the fortress of Louisbourg to guard the entrance to the St. Lawrence. On the other side of the St. Lawrence, the French controlled the south and west coasts of Newfoundland and the island of Anticosti, but as fishing-bases rather than settlements: the English settlements in Newfoundland were limited to the south-east peninsula of Avalon. The narrow fringe of settlements south-west from Quebec—divided into seigneuries, in which the seigneur's house served as a fort—was always in danger from the Red Indians. To the north-west of the St. Lawrence these were of the relatively backward stock of the Algonkins; in the fertile lake-peninsula between Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron they were of the comparatively peaceful Huron tribe, among whom the missionaries did splendid work. But south of the St. Lawrence, in what is now New York State, the French were from the first brought into conflict with the terrible "Five Nations" of the Iroquois (Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, Senecas), the most highly organised, but also the fiercest, of all the Indian tribes; and the struggle with them formed a far greater part in the early history of French Canada than any Indian conflicts formed in the history of the English colonies. Far to the north, the English, from 1670, were carrying on a trade in furs from Hudson's Bay, under a Charter granted by Charles II to the Hudson Bay Company; but they made no settlements, and they owed the foundation of their enterprise to two of the most daring of the French explorers and trappers, Radisson and Groseillers.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH STRUGGLE

Plates 63 and **66** serve to illustrate the Anglo-French struggle for North America and the war of the American Revolution. These wars are discussed in the next section, and need not be dealt with here (*see* pp. 64, 65). Note, however, the three converging lines of attack upon Quebec, the centre of the French posts (Quebec itself is shown in **Inset 63*a***): (1) The first and main line of attack was up the St. Lawrence, where Louisbourg had first to be captured; (2) The second was up the great waterway of the Hudson, Lake Champlain, and the River Richelieu, which gave a direct passage by water, with only one portage, through the backwoods, from the centre of the English settlements to the centre of the French. This waterway is most clearly shown in **Plate 66**. It was of the highest strategic importance in both wars: it saw (round Ticonderoga and Crown Point) much of the most serious fighting in the Seven Years' War; and it was the line of advance for Burgoyne's force in 1777. An alternative route was offered half-way along the Hudson-Champlain waterway by the Mohawk Valley, which led through the Iroquois country to Fort Oswego on Lake Ontario. These natural avenues through the mountains are still to-day the main lines of communication between the Atlantic States and Canada, and between New York and the great central plain. (3) The third line of attack in the Seven Years' War was over the Alleghanies to Fort Duquesne (Pittsburgh), and the French ports in the Ohio Valley.—In **Plate 63** note the Proclamation Line, drawn along the watershed, and intended to mark off the area within which special protection was to be given to the Indians in the vast territory ceded by France in 1763. This Proclamation (which provided, among other things, that sales of native lands should not be valid unless endorsed by Government officials) was the first evidence of a new respect for native rights. It was resented by the Americans. But the principles of the Proclamation remained in force in Canada after the independence of the United States

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was established; they explain the difference between the native policies pursued in Canada and the United States.

MODERN POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

Plate 78–9 illustrates the political development of both Canada and the United States from 1783 to the present day. Here two features are of importance, (*a*) the determination of the boundary of the United States, and (*b*) the internal development and expansion of Canada. The boundary question, which is illustrated by the **Insets** *b* and *e*, is discussed in the next section (p. 67) and need not be considered here. **Insets 79** *c* and *d* show the chief area of conflict in the war of 1812, in which, with the aid of friendly Indians, Canada successfully repelled an invasion from the United States, and in doing so strengthened her nascent national sentiment.

FORMATION OF THE PROVINCES

The first stage in the development of Canada was marked by the reorganisation which followed the Peace of Paris (1763) and the American Revolution. (1) **Newfoundland** was from the first a distinct colony, but its growth was very slow, and even after 1763 it was hampered by the claims of the French to fishing rights on the southern and western shores—a problem not finally solved until 1903. To Newfoundland was attached the coast of Labrador: the limits of this control were not fixed until 1927, when it was settled on the line shown in the map. (2) **Nova Scotia** (French Acadia), so named at the time of its temporary conquest in 1628, became finally British territory in 1713, though Cape Breton Island was not added until 1763. In 1755 most of the French inhabitants were removed, British settlers were brought in, and a garrison was fixed at Halifax. Until 1784 Nova Scotia was regarded as including the later New Brunswick, which had been part of the French province of Acadia. (3) **Prince Edward Island** was organised as a separate colony in 1769; the first meeting of its representative assembly took place in 1773. (4) **Quebec**, for some time after 1763, remained a purely French settlement, with undefined boundaries; the Quebec Act of 1774 secured the continuance of French civil law and the Roman Catholic religion; the promise of self-governing institutions, made by the Proclamation of 1763, was not carried into effect until 1791, but the French settlers remained loyal to the British Government during the War of Independence. These four distinct colonies, all (except Quebec) enjoying representative institutions, were the nuclei of the new Canada which developed after 1783. The end of the War of Independence brought into Canada large numbers (? 45,000) of loyalist exiles from the United States (United Empire Loyalists). They were given grants of land in the maritime provinces and in Upper Canada, above the French settled area. This increase of population led to the creation of new colonies. (5) **New Brunswick** was organised as a distinct colony in 1784, with its capital at St. John. (6) In 1791 the Canada Act divided the English-settled area of Upper Canada (later known as **Ontario**) from the French-settled area of Quebec, and endowed both with representative institutions. It was the United Empire Loyalists of this new province who resisted the American invasion in the war of 1812. The boundary between the two provinces was the Ottawa River. Their boundaries in the wilderness were unsurveyed.

The vast and vague region of the north-west was left to the Indians and the trappers of the Hudson Bay Company, whose jurisdiction was undefined. Here, in 1811, a small Scottish settlement was planted by Lord Selkirk on the Red River—the nucleus of the future colony of Manitoba; but it remained under the control of the Hudson Bay Company.

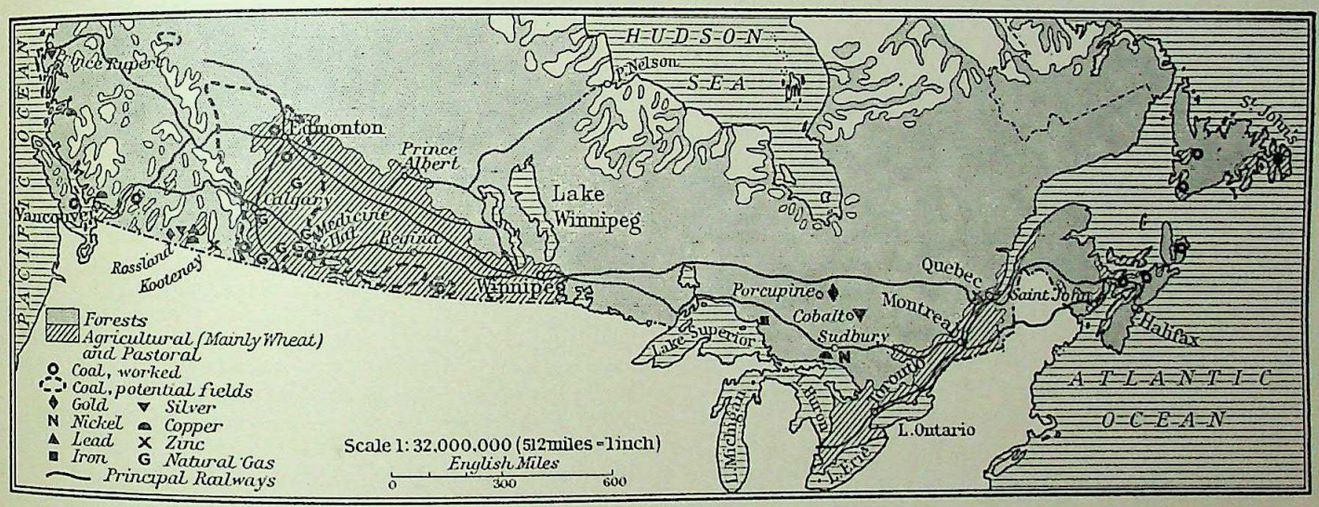

FIG. XXXIX.—CANADA: MODERN ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

NINETEENTH CENTURY GROWTH

A second period of development began after the Papineau Rebellion of 1837 and the Durham Report. (1) In 1840 Ontario and Quebec were reunited, and endowed with responsible self-government, which was also extended to the maritime colonies. Self-government was followed by a period of increasing prosperity. (2) In 1858 the colony of **British Columbia** was organised on the Pacific coast. Its establishment was rendered possible by the Oregon boundary settlement of 1846 (*see* p. 66, 67), which divided between the American and the British allegiances an area which had long been jointly occupied. But British Columbia was separated from the older colonies by a vast expanse of undeveloped country, still controlled by the Hudson Bay Company, and its trade connections were mainly with the American Pacific States. (3) In 1867 the British North America Act gave legal form to a scheme of federation agreed upon by the Canadian leaders. Ontario and Quebec again became separate provinces; they were joined in the confederation by Nova Scotia and New Brunswick from the first, and by Prince Edward Island in 1873, but Newfoundland stood out. (4) In 1869 the territorial rights of the Hudson Bay Company were bought out for £300,000, the Company remaining as a trading body. The half-breeds at Red River tried to set up an independent republic, but the rebels were defeated; and in 1870 the Province of

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Manitoba was created. (5) In 1871 **British Columbia** joined the Dominion of Canada, but her membership could not mean much until the vast unpeopled plains which separated her from the older provinces had somehow been bridged. The widely scattered provinces needed improved communications to bring them into unity. (6) In 1867–76 the Intercolonial Railway was built by the Dominion Government to link the maritime provinces with the St. Lawrence provinces. In 1881–5 the Canadian Pacific Railway was constructed across the continent, thus opening up the great plains and linking British Columbia with the eastern provinces. (7) The development of the western prairies formed the next stage. In 1874 the North-west Mounted Police was formed to maintain order in this wide region. In 1876 the whole area was placed under the control of a Lieutenant-Governor with an elected council, but the Dominion Government reserved legislative power and ultimate control. In 1882 four "territories" were marked out—Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca; they obtained legislative assemblies in 1888. (8) In 1905, the number of settlers having greatly increased, the four territories were reorganised into two provinces, **Saskatchewan** and **Alberta**, with the same rights and powers as the other provinces of the Dominion. (9) In 1912 the boundaries of Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec were revised and extended, so as to give these provinces access to Hudson's Bay. All these territorial changes are indicated on the map.

The development of modern Canada has mainly depended upon the extension of railway facilities for the opening up of the country. The construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway was the most important of these enterprises. But two other trans-continental systems have since opened up the country farther to the north: the Grand Trunk Pacific, chartered in 1903, and the Canadian Northern, built up by the amalgamation of many lines into a single system. These lines are now united under public ownership as the Canadian National Railway. It is the construction of all these lines which has mainly rendered possible the rapid expansion of Canadian population since 1897, and the exploitation of the illimitable resources of the country.

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

DISCOVERY

Lying at the Antipodes of Europe, and off the route followed by the early navigators from South America to the East Indies, Australasia was naturally the last important region of the world to be revealed to Europe. Mercator's globe of 1587 (**Plate 49***b*) shows that some rumour of the existence of a great continent or island in that region had reached the explorers of the sixteenth century, probably from the natives they met in the Malay Archipelago. But it was not until the period of the Dutch supremacy in the seventeenth century that any definite knowledge was obtained. Several Dutch sailors (notably Leeuwin in 1622) touched on parts of the south and west coasts. Then Tasman, in two voyages of 1642–3 and 1644, revealed the magnitude of the new continent. In the first voyage he touched on the coast which he called Van Diemen's Land, but which has since been appropriately named Tasmania; he also discovered land far to the east, which he called Staatenland, but which has been rechristened New Zealand in honour of its Dutch discoverers; he returned round the north coast of New Guinea. On his second voyage he followed the south-east coast of New Guinea and thence (thinking he was following the same coast-line) round the Gulf of Carpentaria and along the whole of the northern and north-western coasts of Australia. His tracks are fully marked in **Plate 87**, and the idea of the shape of the new continent which he formed is shown in **Plate 49***c*. What he had seen was not alluring, and nothing was done by the Dutch to follow up his explorations. Dampier, in his voyage round the world, which is shown in **Plate 59**, touched on Australia, and in a later voyage (1699–1700) reached Shark's Bay and revealed more clearly the relation of Australia to the Malay Archipelago. But when the eighteenth century opened, the outline of the continent was not yet disclosed, and, in particular, its best part, the east coast, was still unknown, while New Zealand was no more than a legend.

The real discovery of both Australia and New Zealand was reserved for the greatest of English navigators, Captain Cook, whose voyages are shown on **Plate 64**, and, so far as they affected Australia and New Zealand, more fully on **Plate 87**. On his first voyage (1768–71) Cook traced the whole outline of New Zealand, and the whole eastern coast of Australia; on his second (1772–5) and third (1776–80) voyages he completed the survey of the New Zealand coast, besides exploring many of the Pacific archipelagoes. The detailed exploration of the coast of Australia was completed (*a*) by Flinders and Bass in 1798, who discovered Port Phillip, circumnavigated Tasmania and showed that it was separated ("Bass Strait") from the continent, and (*b*) by Flinders in 1803, who traced out in detail the whole southern coast, and then resurveyed the east and north coasts. These voyages are shown on **Plate 87**. Thus even the outline of New Zealand was not accurately known until the last quarter of the eighteenth century; the outline of Australia not until the beginning of the nineteenth. Interior exploration, in Australia, went on concurrently with settlement and organisation, during the next three generations.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AUSTRALIA

"Happy is the nation that has no history." Australia has been exempt from the misery and romance of war since the first contact of Europe with it. There has been no conflict between nations for its possession, and no shiftings of boundaries, while its aboriginals were too few and primitive to give trouble. Its progress in settlement, interior discovery, and organisation falls into four periods: (i) the period of beginnings, 1788–1828; (ii) the period of systematic colonisation, 1829–55; (iii) the period of the six colonies, 1855–1901; (iv) the period of the Commonwealth and of external expansion since 1901.

BEGINNINGS

In 1788 Botany Bay was selected as a convict settlement; and the first development began in the fertile coastal belt of New South Wales between the Pacific and the Blue Mountains, which shut off the unknown interior. Convict labour made roads and harbours and laid out towns and farms, at the cost of the home Government. Perhaps a start could not otherwise have been made: voluntary emigration would never have peopled an undeveloped country at so vast a distance from Europe, with the United States and Canada so near at hand. A second convict settlement was made in Tasmania in 1803. There was a very scanty stream of free settlers from 1793, and in 1814 the colonisation of Victoria was begun by a small free settlement at Port Phillip, near Melbourne—Victoria has never known convict stations. But the main development of Australia in its first stage depended upon convict labour. In that period of ferocious laws, transported convicts were often far from undesirable settlers. The chief event of the first period was the introduction of sheep-breeding in 1799; this alone attracted free settlers. It was not until after the Napoleonic war that any serious exploration of the interior began: then Oxley (1817) and Hume (1824) made their way over the mountains into the valleys of the Murrumbidgee and Murray.

SYSTEMATIC COLONISATION

The real foundations of the Australian nation were laid in the period of systematic colonisation, 1825–55. With-

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out organised effort, a land so remote could never have been settled. (1) In 1827–9 a Government-aided settlement was made at Swan River, in Western Australia: it did not thrive, and in 1850 the colony petitioned for the admission of convicts. (2) The introduction of free settlers in the other colonies was made possible on a large scale by the Wakefield system, whereby land was sold at a good price, and the money was used to pay for immigration. This plan was adopted in a systematic way when a new colony was planted in South Australia (1834), and the adoption of a similar plan brought almost a rapid increase in the population of Victoria from 1838 onwards: the annual immigration rose from 600 in 1821–7 to 14,000 in 1838 and 32,000 in 1841. The area covered by settlement during this period is coloured pink in **Plate 87**. (3) In 1840 the transportation of convicts ceased to New South Wales, and in 1853 to Tasmania: it continued in West Australia until 1868. (4) These developments made possible the development of governmental organisation. In 1842 representative government was introduced in New South Wales and in South Australia. In 1850 an Act was passed empowering the various colonies to set up their own systems of responsible government. In 1851 Victoria was separated from New South Wales, and in 1855 responsible government was established in the four colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania, and South Australia. This ended the period of control by the home Government over the development of the colonies. (5) During this period the exploration of the interior was vigorously pushed forward: the work of Sturt, Mitchell, Eyre, Leichhardt, and Kennedy, whose routes are marked on **Plate 87**, belonged to this period: these explorers disclosed the interior of Queensland, the Murray basin, the fertile area of Victoria, the southern coastlands, and much of the eastern part of the central plain; in effect, they revealed all those regions of Australia which are best suited for settlement and for sheep-breeding.

THE SIX COLONIES

The establishment of responsible government might have led to a slowing down of immigration, since it put an end to the use of the proceeds of sales of crown lands for this purpose. But in the years following 1850 gold was found, first in New South Wales, then in Victoria, and later (1867) in Queensland; and this led to a rapid increase of population, and to a growth of cultivation to feed the new-comers, while the development of manufacture in England produced a great demand for Australian wool. Accordingly the area of occupation, as shown in the map, was rapidly extended over the wide valleys of the Murray, Murrumbidgee, and Darling. In 1859 Queensland was organised as a separate self-governing colony. The development of Western Australia was long delayed; but during the '80's and '90's very rich deposits of gold were discovered; and in 1890 Western Australia at last obtained responsible government, and the number of self-governing colonies rose to six. The history of Australia during the half-century 1850–1900 is largely occupied with constitutional problems not capable of illustration by maps. But this was also the heroic age of Australian exploration, when the barren interior was crossed in many directions by the Gregorys, Stuart, Burke and Wills, the Forrests, Warburton, Giles, Hodgkinson, and Lindsay, all of whose routes are shown on the map. To this period also belonged the rapid development of the railway system, mainly by State enterprise, which linked the colonies together, and opened great areas for settlement. In the later part of the period Australia began to take alarm at the establishment of colonies or spheres of influence in the Pacific by various European Powers, especially Germany; and it was under Australian pressure that the home Government annexed South-eastern New Guinea (1884) after Germany had annexed the north-eastern portion of the island.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

Closer contact and common external interests brought about in 1901 the combination of the six colonies in a single federal State, and opened the fourth period of Australian history. In 1907 the Commonwealth took over direct responsibility for the control and development of the vast area in the centre of the continent which, under the name of the Northern Territory, had been attached to South Australia since 1863: this large area was divided into two in 1926. In 1906 the control of Southern New Guinea was transferred to the Australian Commonwealth by the British Government. When the Great War broke out, it fell to Australia to occupy the German possessions in New Guinea and the neighbouring islands, and in 1920 a mandate for these lands, under the League of Nations, was entrusted to Australia, which has thus added an external empire to its already vast and only partially developed home territories.

NEW ZEALAND

The development of New Zealand began later, but was much more rapid, than that of Australia. From the end of the eighteenth century there was a drift of stray settlers, mostly undesirables, to the North Island, where they lived among the Maoris, who were numerous (100,000) in the North Island, though very few in the South Island. In 1814 missionary enterprise began, and established a strong influence among the Maoris. But the home Government refused to annex the island: their delay nearly led to annexation by France, who occupied Tahiti in 1838, and made a tentative landing on the South Island in the next year. In that year, however, the first batch of English colonists were sent out by the New Zealand Association, organised by the indefatigable Wakefield; and in the next year, 1840, the islands were annexed by Britain, and the Treaty of Waitangi was made with the Maoris. The English colonists settled at three points, Wellington and Tauranaki in the North Island and Nelson in the South Island, while a Government settlement was made at Auckland (*see* the Inset, **Plate 87***a*). But there were many troubles about land grants with the Maoris, who occupied all the central part of the North Island: in 1848 there was a general Maori rebellion, which was quelled by the tact and wisdom of the Governor, Sir George Grey. Under the auspices of the New Zealand Company, two very successful settlements were made in the South Island (which was free from Maori troubles)—at Dunedin (Otago) by the Free Church of Scotland in 1847, and at Christchurch (Canterbury) by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in 1849. In 1852, having by that time brought out 30,000 settlers, the New Zealand Company resigned its charter. In 1853 six provinces were organised, each with a legislative council—Auckland, Tauranaki, and Wellington in the North Island; Nelson, Canterbury, and Otago in the South Island; a federal council for common affairs meeting at Auckland. New provinces were added—Hawke's Bay (N.I.) in 1858, Marlborough (S.I.) in 1859, Southland (S.I.) in 1862, and Westland (S.I.) in 1873. New troubles with the Maoris disturbed the North Island from 1860 to 1871, these years being filled with incessant wars; at the end of which a settlement was made so satisfactory that there have been no further troubles, and the Maoris have special representatives of their own in the legislature. In 1876 the provincial legislatures were abolished, and New Zealand became a unitary State with fully responsible government, its capital being fixed at Wellington. At that date the population had risen to 350,000, only thirty-six years after the annexation of the islands. At the Imperial Conference of 1907 New Zealand was formally recognised as a Dominion, and a large number of Pacific islands were transferred to its control by the British Government (*see* **Plate 83***a*). In the Great War the occupation of the German part of the

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Samoan Islands fell to New Zealand; and in 1920 she received a mandate from the League of Nations for this territory (**Plate 83***d*).

SOUTH AFRICA

GEOGRAPHICAL CONDITIONS

The history of South Africa has been in an exceptional degree dictated by its physical conditions, which are illustrated by **Plate 89***a*. Like the continent as a whole, it is occupied by a great plateau, which descends steeply to the sea; because of this steep descent, its rivers are not navigable and do not give easy access to the interior. The westward half of the country is dry, and in parts desert, with a harbourless coast. The southern coast, also nearly harbourless, is backed by successive ranges of steep and rugged mountains, which form the rims of successive stages in the ascent to the main plateau, 3,000–5,000 feet high. Only in the south-west corner, in the Cape Peninsula, are there good harbours backed by fertile and well-watered lands. It was from this point that the country was inevitably opened up, and the line of advance was necessarily north-eastwards.

THE DUTCH PERIOD

But the opening up was very slow. Although South Africa was the first of the extra-European lands suited for white settlement to be disclosed by the explorers, it was one of the last to receive any large influx of settlers. For nearly two centuries after Bartholomew Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope in 1487, and Vasco da Gama landed on the shore of Natal in 1497, Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French navigators constantly sailed along the coast on the way to the East, and watered their ships in Table Bay; but it was not until 1652 that the Dutch East India Company established a fort and a small permanent settlement at Cape Town. It did not extend beyond the Cape Peninsula (*see* **Plate 89***b*) until nearly the end of the century, when the coming of French Protestant exiles after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes helped to settle the fertile stretch of the Stellenbosch province, beyond the Drakenstein Mountains, but still close to the starting-point. The colonists were allowed no semblance of self-government by the Dutch East India Company. But during the eighteenth century settlers found their way over the difficult mountain-chains which hemmed them in, and spread eastwards and northwards, scattering themselves sparsely over the ill-watered regions of the Karroo, and enslaving many of the Hottentots whom they found there. The four wide provinces of Tulbagh, Swellendam, Graaff Reinet, and Uitenhage were loosely organised, but the Dutch Company found them difficult to control, and they were on the verge of open revolt when the subjugation of Holland by France (1795) brought an English fleet with a small army to occupy the country as a means of safeguarding the route to India. Restored by the Peace of Amiens (1801), Cape Colony was reoccupied in 1806, when the permanent English occupation began.

At that moment the Dutch settlements—thinly spread in the districts farthest from Cape Town—covered the area coloured pink in **Plate 89***b*. Within this area, the native populations were the unwarlike Hottentots and Bushmen. But on the eastern frontier the settlers were beginning to come into contact with the virile and warlike Bantu peoples, now pressing down from the north and east: the first of the long series of Kaffir wars had already been fought before the coming of the English. Within the settled area there was a large slave population, partly Hottentot, partly consisting of slaves from Malaysia, West Africa, etc., imported by the Dutch Company. The Boers, having lived apart since the seventeenth century, still held the views of that period regarding slavery. The English (who abolished the slave-trade in 1807, the year after the conquest of South Africa) were inspired by new humanitarian ideas regarding the native races; their cause was advocated by the missionaries, who were very active from the moment of the British conquest. This was the principal source of conflict between the two white races.

BEFORE THE GREAT TREK

Between 1806 and 1835 four events changed the course of South African history. (1) In 1820 a substantial English settlement was made in the Uitenhage province, about Port Elizabeth, Grahamstown, and Bathurst—near the Kaffir border. Here slavery was prohibited. This district was known as Albany. (2) There was a series of Kaffir wars on the eastern frontiers. In 1811–12 the Kaffirs, who had invaded Uitenhage, were pushed behind the Fish River: this alone made the English settlement of 1820 possible. In 1818–19 the Kaffirs were pushed back to the Keiskamma River, a neutral belt being left between the two rivers. In 1834–5 a very serious Kaffir invasion took place; it was repelled, and the Kaffir territory as far as the Kei River was annexed and organised as a new province, "Adelaide," but the Kaffirs, though brought under British control, were not dispossessed. This settlement was reversed by the Colonial Secretary, Lord Glenelg, as unjust to the natives; his decision, inspired by the missionaries, aroused keen resentment among the Boer farmers. (3) In 1833 the British Parliament passed an Act emancipating all slaves throughout the British Empire, and providing compensation. The Act came into force in South Africa in December 1834, but the compensation available was inadequate, and the Boer farmers were alienated. (4) Meanwhile, in the background, immense disturbances were going on among the Bantu tribes. A formidable leader, Chaka, had organised the Zulus as a conquering army, and carried on slaughter upon a colossal scale in the regions now known as Zululand and Natal: it was this pressure which drove the Kaffirs upon the British frontier. A similar empire had been carved out, about 1817, in the Transvaal by the Matabele, who had broken away from the Zulus, under their chief Mosilikatze. And among the mountains of Basutoland the remnants of broken tribes were organised under the chief Moshesh. These big tribal movements would in any case have affected the course of South African history; they came at a moment when there were unrest and movement among an important section of the white settlers.

THE BOER REPUBLICS

In 1835 and the following years large numbers of Boer farmers, disgusted with the attitude of the British Government towards the natives, began to trek northwards into the almost empty lands beyond the Orange River: by 1840 some 10,000 of them had left Cape Colony. There is nothing in modern history to be compared with this Odyssey of the Boers; it brought them into conflict with the formidable empires of the Zulus and the Matabele, both of which they broke. The Boers (1) settled the Orange Free State, and defeated the Matabele at Winburg (1837); (2) other bands crossed the Vaal River and overran the Transvaal, where they established a loosely organised republic, or group of republics; (3) in 1838 some of them passed from the Orange Free State through Van Reenen's Pass into Natal, where, after suffering a treacherous massacre at Weenen, they defeated the main Zulu army at Blood River. Thus, within five years, an extensive but undefined Boer empire, claiming independence of the British colony, had been set up in the north, and had pushed back the threat of both Matabele and Zulus.

The British Government, at home and in the colony, had to determine its relations with this new power; and this problem dominated South African history throughout

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the remainder of the nineteenth century. On the one hand, the British Government was unwilling to extend its responsibilities; on the other, the ill-organised Boer States might cause serious disturbances among the native peoples, and the missionaries, then very influential in England, regarded the Boers as oppressors of the natives. During the twenty years following the Great Trek there were several experiments. (1) In 1843 the half-breeds known as Griquas, who occupied a vague area north of the Orange River, and the Basutos under Moshesh, were taken under British protection, to safeguard them against the Boers: they formed, as it were, a barrier between the colony and the Boer settlements. (2) In 1842 a British garrison occupied Durban in Natal, where there had been some British settlers since 1824; and in 1843 Natal was formally annexed, within boundaries marked by the River Umzimkulu on the south, the Drakensberg Mountains on the west, and the Buffalo and Tugela Rivers on the north. The Boer settlers in Natal resented and resisted this annexation, and after a time most of them retreated to the Orange Free State or the Transvaal. (3) In 1847, after a new Kaffir war, the boundary of Cape Colony was again extended to the River Keiskamma, while the territory beyond, as far as the River Kei, was brought under a protectorate with the name of British Kaffraria, within which the port of East London grew up (**Plate 89***a*). Another Kaffir war, 1850–3, led to the annexation of lands beyond the Kei, with Queenstown as their centre, and the whole region was garrisoned largely with troops enlisted in Germany. A fresh Kaffir war in 1858 led to the extension of the protectorate as far as the Bashee River. Finally, in 1865, the lands up to the Kei were incorporated in the Colony; while the "Transkei" became a native reserve under British protection. In 1862 the eastern Griquas, removed from the south of the Orange Free State, were settled in an empty area henceforward known as Griqualand East. Thus the whole area between Cape Colony and Natal, occupied by various Kaffir tribes, was brought under British control. (4) Meanwhile the relations of the British power with the Boer republics had undergone several changes. In 1848 Sir Harry Smith defined the Orange River as the north boundary of Cape Colony. He also definitely annexed the Orange Free State, as a means of dealing with the constant friction between the Boers and the Basutos; the home Government approved only on condition that full self-government should be given to the Boers of the Free State. In 1851, by the Sand River Convention, the Transvaal Boers were recognised as independent. In 1854, since there was still unrest in the Orange Free State, full autonomy was granted to it by the Bloemfontein Convention. Thus, by 1865, after much confusion, the political geography of South Africa had obtained some definition. (1) There were two British colonies—Cape Colony and Natal. (2) There were two independent Boer republics, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. (3) Between these there was a series of native territories under British protection—Griqualand West, Basutoland, Kaffraria, and Griqualand East. These protectorates were, however, very vague. That over Basutoland was not made definite until 1868, when a British resident was appointed That over Griqualand West was not formalised until 1871, when the discovery of diamonds brought an inrush of white settlers: a dispute about boundaries arose with the Orange Free State; the British Government settled the dispute in its own favour, and subsequently paid a compensation of £90,000.

CONFLICT WITH THE BOERS

The aloofness of the British Government from the Boer republics did not last long. In many ways the interests of the group of white States were intertwined. They needed a common native policy; their trade nearly all passed through, and was controlled by, the British ports, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, East London, Durban. As early as 1858 Sir George Grey suggested that federation would be the solution of the problem. This suggestion was revived by Lord Carnarvon, Colonial Secretary in 1874; and in 1877 Sir Bartle Frere was sent to South Africa to carry the policy of federation into effect. Meanwhile the need of a common native policy was being illustrated. The Zulu power had revived under Cetewayo. It threatened both Natal and the Transvaal; and between the Zulus and the Boers of the Transvaal (now in a condition almost of anarchy) acute disputes had broken out: if war came, all South Africa might be involved, for the Boers were already on bad terms with other tribes. In 1877 the Transvaal was annexed by Sir T. Shepstone, under the terms of a Commission which empowered him to take this step if it were needed and if a sufficient number of the inhabitants welcomed it: the plea was that annexation was necessary as a means of averting wars between Boers and Zulus. But war between British and Zulus came instead (1879): it was so badly managed as to damage British prestige, but the Zulus were defeated, and passed under a vague British protectorate. In 1880 the Transvaal Boers declared their independence, and a Boer force invaded Natal (*see* **Plate 89***d*). They won a success at Majuba, but large reinforcements were coming up, and they would doubtless have been ultimately defeated. The British Government preferred not to continue the struggle; and the Convention of Pretoria was negotiated, whereby the Transvaal obtained full autonomy under British suzerainty. In 1884 the independence of the Transvaal was made more complete by the Convention of London. Having achieved their independence, the Transvaal Boers began to push outwards at the expense of their native neighbours. In Northern Zululand (**Plate 89***d*) they set up a New Republic, which was in 1888 incorporated in the Transvaal, but was later (1902) added to Natal; in Bechuanaland (**Plate 89***a*) they formed "republics" of Stellaland and Goshen. This led to an expedition, under Sir Charles Warren (1884), which drove out the Boers, took Bechuanaland under a British protectorate, and directly annexed the southern part of that country (1885); British Bechuanaland was incorporated in Cape Colony in 1895; Northern Bechuanaland remained a protectorate under its native chiefs.

JOHANNESBURG AND RHODESIA

Meanwhile two new factors had emerged which opened a new period in South African history. (1) The discovery of gold in the Transvaal brought an inrush of new settlers, mainly English, who created the city of Johannesburg (1883) and brought immense new wealth to the country, but were denied political rights by the Boer Government. (2) The rush of the European Powers for African territory had begun (*see above*, p. 45, and **Plate 88***a*): Germany annexed South West Africa in 1884; Portugal claimed a belt of territory stretching across the continent from Angola to Mozambique. The Portuguese claims were ultimately settled by a treaty of 1891, which defined the Portuguese boundaries as they now stand, and left the intermediate territories (now Rhodesia) open to settlement. This treaty, however, and an arbitration, left Lourenço Marques in the hands of the Portuguese. It became the chief port of outlet for the Transvaal. In 1887 coastal Zululand was annexed as a British colony, and Amatongaland, immediately south of Delagoa Bay (**89***d*), was taken under British protection. In 1888 an agreement was concluded with Lobengula, King of the Matabele, whereby he promised not to sell or cede territory to any foreign Power. In 1889 the Chartered South Africa Company, inspired by Mr. Cecil Rhodes, was formed to utilise these opportunities. In 1890 Mashonaland was occupied. In 1893 a war with the Matabele, who asserted their suzerainty over the Mashonas, ended in the annexation of their terri-

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tory as well as of Mashonaland ; and the new dominion to which the name Rhodesia was later given was formed. It enclosed the Boer republics on the north, as the annexation of Bechuanaland had enclosed them on the east ; they felt that they were surrounded by the British power.

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Meanwhile there had been incessant friction between the Transvaal Government and the Uitlanders of the gold-fields, whose cause the British Government pleaded in vain. In 1895 Dr. Jameson tried to cut the knot by an ill-advised raid from Rhodesia. This put the Boer Government in the right, and opened a period of embittered negotiation which ended in the South African War of 1899–1902. In this war the two Boer republics combined, and for a time held the upper hand ; but after an heroic and resourceful resistance they were defeated and their territories annexed to the British Empire : the war can be followed in **Plate 89***a*. In 1907, five years after the war, full self-governing powers under the British Crown were conferred upon the two former republics. In 1910 they were incorporated, as parts of the Union of South Africa, with the two British colonies. The protectorates of Bechuanaland, Basutoland, and Swaziland did not form parts of the Union, but remained by their own wish under direct British control. In 1914–15, after a Boer rising had been suppressed by the Union Government under General Botha, the German colony of South West Africa was overrun and conquered ; and in 1919, by the Treaty of Versailles, this territory was transferred under a mandate to the Union of South Africa. Rhodesia remained outside the Union : in 1923 Southern Rhodesia (south of the Zambesi River) received the rights of responsible self-government, less than a generation after its first settlement. Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland remain Crown Colonies. But the result of all these events was to turn the whole of Southern Africa south of the Zambesi, excepting only the Portuguese territory, into a single group of British colonies, dominated by the self-governing Union of South Africa.

INDIA

The bringing of India under European influence has been, next to the colonisation of America, the most remarkable result of European expansion. It was made possible, and its character was determined, mainly by the political conditions existing in India itself, and these were the products of its earlier history.

On the external side, i.e. apart from religion, philosophy, art, and literature, the history of India has been mainly the story of a succession of waves of conquest from Central Asia through the passes of the north-west. Thus came the primitive Aryans, the Greeks under Alexander and his successors, an endless succession of nomadic tribes such as the White Huns, and one Mohammedan conqueror after another from the eleventh to the eighteenth century. This long series of invasions accounts for the racial, linguistic, and religious complexity of Indian society, which is without a parallel in the world. **Fig. XL** shows the chief linguistic divisions of India, but it is impossible to give these in detail : there are twice as many distinct languages spoken in India as in Europe. The invaders usually spread over, and settled in, the rich plains of the Indus and the Ganges, but they seldom passed in large numbers into the more remote regions—into Bengal, or into the southern or peninsular part of India, which is a high tableland with a selvage of rich coastland, separated from the fertile northern plains by wide tracts of mountains and jungle. Southern India has therefore retained its Dravidian (pre-Aryan) languages, and has been the stronghold of native Indian (*Hindu*) culture and religion.

What differentiated the European conquest from earlier conquests was that, coming from the sea, it first affected the southern parts of India and Bengal, i.e. the regions least affected by landward conquests, and only later spread to the plains of the north and north-west ; that, unlike the earlier invasions, it never involved wholesale settlement, or any sudden dislocation of the Indian social system ; and that, by way of the sea, the conquerors remained in contact with their countries of origin, and, unlike their predecessors, were never merged in the Indian society.

EARLY INDIA

Five maps in this Atlas illustrate the state of India at widely separated periods before the beginning of European contact. The smaller Inset on **Plate 2–3** shows the empire of Asoka, in the third century before Christ ; the

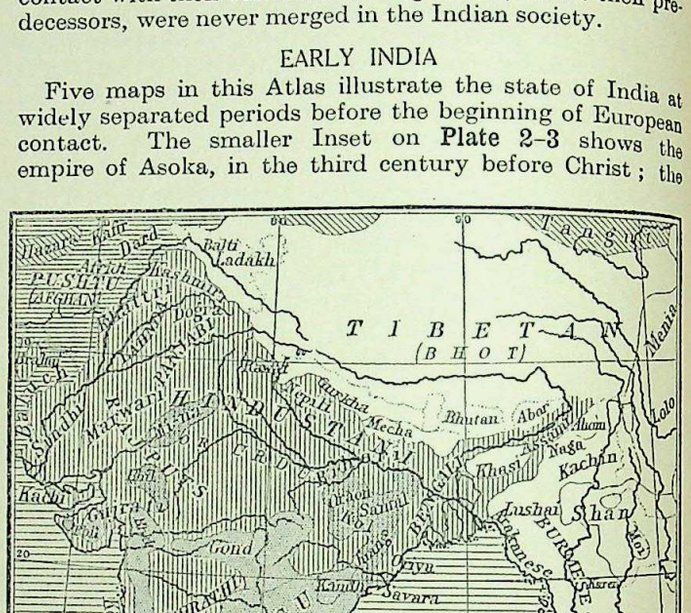

Fig. XL.—Languages of India

main map on the same plate gives the situation about A.D. 200 ; the larger Inset refers to a period c. A.D. 400 ; the main map on **Plate 30–1** shows India under Mohammedan rule, eight hundred years later, in the thirteenth century ; and the Inset on the same plate shows the Mogul Empire in the sixteenth century.

The empire of **Asoka** perhaps marks the highest point reached by Indian civilisation, as yet scarcely affected by external influences save for the contact with the Greeks in the far north-west ; and it certainly marks the nearest approach to political unity ever made by India with her own resources. But Asoka's empire was a momentary thing.

In the main map on **Plate 2–3** a feature appears which is reproduced in all the later maps of this group, and which points to one of the most significant things in Indian history. It shows Northern India under the control of a power which had come from Central Asia and still retained contact with that region, while the peninsular plateau in the south was controlled by one or more indigenous States. Down to the English conquest this was the normal state of things in India—the foreign master of the north changing every two or three centuries. In **Plate 2–3** the invading power in the north is the empire of the **Kushans** or Tue-chi, a Mongol people who came from Bactria, where they had been influenced by Greek and Persian culture. Their power lasted for two or three centuries, the normal duration of an Indian empire. Their greatest figure was Kanishka, a

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strong upholder of Buddhism, whose seat of empire was Peshawar, at the mouth of the Khyber Pass. The indigenous empire of the south was that of the Andhra Dynasty, which came from the Telugu country, in the modern presidency of Madras.

The larger Inset on **Plate 2–3** shows the rise of a second big native empire in India, that of the **Guptas**, which started from Magadha (Bihar) and subjugated the whole Ganges Valley (c. A.D. 400). But it never included the southern part of India, which remained under indigenous rulers; while in the north-west Kushan princes still ruled, and there is evidence that the Sassanid (Persian) Empire had some hold in India. In any case, the Gupta Empire was shortlived, and was soon overthrown by an irruption of White Huns from Central Asia at the end of the fifth century. Then followed a period of five centuries during which India was free from foreign conquest, though there were occasional raids, as in A.D. 664, when the Mohammedans first appeared. The country was split up into innumerable tiny despotisms, constantly at war with one another, and constantly rising and falling.

MOHAMMEDAN INDIA

That period came to an end when, in A.D. 1001, the Mohammedan Sultan of Ghazni in Afghanistan began a series of raids and invasions which opened the Mohammedan period of Indian history. Thereafter the North, and sometimes a great part of the South, was always under Mohammedan rule, one dynasty overthrowing and succeeding another: in the south native Hindu States rose and fell, their boundaries melting and changing. India, in short, was a sort of kaleidoscope; but she never made any solid progress towards political unity or stable government or equal justice.

The main map on **Plate 30–1** shows an Afghan Mohammedan dynasty extending about A.D. 1250 from beyond the north-western passes across Northern India. It was known as the "Slave Dynasty," its greatest figure, Kutb-ud-daula (who has left his memorial in the great Kutb Minar near Delhi), having been a slave. In Northern India, during the next three centuries, one Mohammedan dynasty succeeded another; smaller Mohammedan kingdoms rose and fell in Bengal, Kashmir, Gujarat, and the Deccan—notably the powerful Bahmani State, and the kingdom of Golconda (near the modern Hyderabad). But in the far south Hindu States held their own, and were consolidated into the powerful empire of **Vijayanagar**, which checked the Mohammedan tide from the fourteenth century to the sixteenth, when it was destroyed at the battle of Talikota (1565). This was the state of confusion in which India lay when the European traders first touched its shores.

THE MOGUL EMPIRE

The Inset on **Plate 30–1** shows the last of the Mohammedan empires in India, that of the Moguls, who, like their predecessors, came from Central Asia. Their power was established by Baber and Humayun (1525–56), the precursors of the great **Akbar**, who was contemporary with Queen Elizabeth (1556–1605), and under whom the Mohammedan power in India reached its highest point of splendour. But neither Akbar nor any of his successors before Aurangzib (1659–1707) ever conquered, or seriously attempted to conquer, Southern India. The northern part of that region was divided into three substantial Mohammedan States—Bijapur, Ahmadnagar, and Golconda. The far south formed, until 1565, the empire of Vijayanagar; after that date it was divided among a number of princelets called the Polygars; while on the west or Malabar coast there were many petty rajas in the narrow strip between the Ghats and the sea, over whom the Portuguese had found it easy to exercise control. These divisions also made the way easy, in the south, for the Dutch, English, and French to get a foothold; and accordingly this was at first the scene of their most important factories.

EIGHTEENTH-CENTURY CHAOS

In the second half of the seventeenth century the Emperor Aurangzib undertook the conquest of Southern India, overthrew the existing States, and set up a deputy or Subadar to govern the Deccan from Hyderabad, who came to be known as the Nizam of Hyderabad. But the strain of this effort, together with the resistance aroused by Aurangzib's abandonment of the religious toleration practised by his predecessors, was too much for his empire. Led by Sivaji, the Hindu **Marathas** of the west revolted; even during Aurangzib's lifetime their raids extended over half of India. After his death confusion grew rapidly. The great provincial viceroys became practically independent: the most important of these were the Nawab-Vizier of **Oudh**, the Nawab of **Bengal**, and the **Nizam** of Hyderabad, with his subordinate the Nawab of Arcot or the **Carnatic**—the coastal district in which the European factories lay. The power of the Marathas spread across India from Poona to Orissa, and seemed likely to dominate the whole country until they were checked in 1760 by an invading Afghan army at Panipat in the far north-west. The Marathas were a loose confederacy of military chiefs owning nominal allegiance to the descendants of Sivaji, and to their hereditary Prime Ministers, the Brahmin **Peshwas** of Poona: the chief Maratha States, after the Peshwa's, were those of (1) the **Bhonslas**, Rajas of Nagpur and Berar; (2) the house of **Sindhia** (capital Gwalior); (3) the house of **Holkar** (capital Indore); and (4) the **Gaekwar** of Baroda on the west coast; but their limits changed so constantly, and their lands were so much intermixed, that no boundaries can be shown. Adventurers carved out States for themselves, notably the Moslem adventurer **Hyder Ali**, who dethroned the Hindu Raja of Mysore, and brought under his rule a large part of the old empire of Vijayanagar. India was also invaded from Afghanistan in 1739 and again in 1759, and no effective resistance was possible. In this state of anarchy—no new thing in Indian history—the European traders had to arm for their own defence; they were drawn into military adventures; and out of these were to come, for the first time in Indian history, political unity, stable government, and equal justice.

The state of anarchy set forth above is illustrated by **Plate 65*a***: the States there shown are those with whom the English were to be brought into conflict in their advance towards empire. This advance was easy, precisely because of the age-long chaos of India, and because the Indian peoples, deeply divided and accustomed for untold centuries to obey foreign masters, had no national or patriotic feeling, and readily enlisted in the service of the Europeans.

THE BRITISH CONQUEST OF INDIA

Plate 65 shows, in two maps, the stages in the conquest of India by the English East India Company, which was in the main effected in the half-century between 1757 and 1805; **Plate 80** shows the completion of the conquest during the first half of the nineteenth century; **Fig. XLI** shows the chief areas of the Indian Mutiny.

DUPLEIX AND CLIVE

The first step in making use of the anarchy of India was taken by the French. Their action compelled the English to intervene, lest they should be deprived of their trade by native princes under French influence. Dupleix, Governor of Pondicherry (1741), took up the cause of claimants to the two most important thrones in Southern India, Hyderabad and Arcot. By 1750 his candidates were enthroned, and French influence seemed to be supreme over the whole of the South. But the military genius of Clive checked Dupleix's successes, and Dupleix was recalled

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in 1754. Nevertheless, though the Nawab of the Carnatic was now an English protégé, the more powerful Nizam of Hyderabad was an ally of the French, and in 1755 handed over to them the coastal district of the Northern Circars, to provide supplies for a French army. This was the only territorial acquisition of either side, and when the Seven Years' War began the future seemed to lie with the French.

In 1756 the Nawab of Bengal attacked the British factory at Calcutta. Clive was sent from Madras to regain it, and won the Battle of Plassey (1757), which resulted in the placing of an English candidate upon the throne of Bengal. Henceforward the Nawabs of Bengal were puppets of the East India Company, which had supreme power but took no responsibility for government. The Seven Years' War had now begun. It brought about a new Franco-British war in Southern India, the result of which was that the French power was broken, and the Northern Circars were transferred to the East India Company. During the following years the hold of the E.I.C. over Bengal was secured. In 1759 an attack by the neighbouring Vizier of Oudh was repelled. In 1760 the E.I.C. replaced one puppet-nawab with another, and took over the direct administration of three districts, Burdwan, Midnapore, and Chittagong (*see* the Inset-map **65***b*, which shows the districts of Bengal). In 1763 the puppet-nawab revolted, and was joined by the Vizier of Oudh and the Mogul Emperor: they were completely defeated at Buxar, 1764, and in 1765 the Mogul granted to the E.I.C. the Northern Circars and the right of collecting the revenues of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, which regularised the position; the Company undertaking to pay him a fixed tribute, and securing for him the districts of Cora and Allahabad, taken from Oudh. Even now, however, the Company did not assume the direct government of Bengal (except the three districts), but left it in the hands of the powerless Nawab. From this situation many evils resulted.

WARREN HASTINGS

The real history of British government in India began when in 1772–4 Warren Hastings took over the direct responsibility for administration throughout Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, and created the first outlines of a system of local administration and justice. He also made a treaty of alliance with Oudh, which became the model for later treaties with Native States. This treaty was revised by the Council appointed under the India Act of 1773, which overrode Hastings, and took from Oudh the large district of Benares—the only accession of territory made under Hastings's governorship. During the later years of his government (1777–83) Hastings had to deal with a combination of all the great native powers, the Marathas, the Nizam and Hyder Ali of Mysore, backed by the French. The fact that, with scarcely any aid from England, he held his own against this combination and that Bengal was never invaded proved that the British power in India was solidly established.

The India Act of 1784 forbade further extensions of territory, and this was the settled policy of the home Government. But Lord Cornwallis (Governor 1786–93) found himself drawn into a war with Tipu Sahib of Mysore, at the end of which he annexed certain strategically important lands which are shown in **Plate 65***c*. His successor, striving to carry out his non-intervention instructions, looked on while the Nizam was crushed by the Marathas at Kurdla in 1795: the result was a collapse of British prestige, and the formation, under French influence and with the aid of French officers, of a new combination of the Marathas, the Nizam and Tipu Sahib of Mysore to destroy the British power. This was in 1797, when Napoleon was conquering Egypt as a half-way house to India; and this was the situation with which the Marquess Wellesley was faced when he came out as Governor in that year.

CONQUESTS OF WELLESLEY

The work of Wellesley between 1797 and 1805 was the turning-point in the development of British India: it turned the British *in* India into the British Empire *of* India. The effect of Wellesley's work is shown by **Plate 65***c*. (1) He detached the Nizam from the hostile alliance by a definite pledge of protection. (2) He attacked and overthrew Tipu Sahib (1799), annexed the greater part of his territory, restored the old Hindu line in Mysore, under a treaty of subsidiary alliance whereby British protection was guaranteed and the Raja left his relations with other Indian States under British control: this was the model for all the future treaties with Native States. (3) He then proceeded to reorganise Southern India, bringing the Carnatic under direct British rule, and imposing subsidiary treaties upon the minor Native States, Travancore, Cochin, and Coorg; in 1801 the Nizam also was persuaded to accept a treaty of subsidiary alliance. (4) Wellesley next turned to Northern India. The misgoverned State of Oudh, long in alliance, was forced to accept a stricter treaty on the Mysore model, and to cede more than half of its territory—Gorakhpur, Rohilkhand, and the Doab (the land between the Ganges and the Jumna). Whereas Oudh had hitherto been a buffer State against the Marathas, British territory now fenced Oudh against these predatory chiefs; and both on the north and the south the Marathas found themselves hemmed in by the British power. (5) The Marathas were engaged in fierce war among themselves; Wellesley persuaded the Peshwa, the head of the confederacy, who was being worsted, to accept a subsidiary alliance (Treaty of Bassein, 1802). This brought on two wars with the Marathas. In the first of these Wellesley was triumphant, and compelled the Maratha chiefs to cede to him (1) some territory on the west coast (from the Gaikwar); (2) Cuttack on the east coast (from Bhonsla), which linked Bengal with Madras, and secured British control over the whole eastern coast; (3) Delhi and the country round it (from Sindhia), where the Mogul, now a shadow, had been under the control of the Marathas since 1773: the transfer of the Mogul from Maratha to British control may be regarded as the sign of British sovereignty. In the second war (against Holkar), Wellesley met some reverses, which were made the ground for his recall (1805) before his work was completed. The Maratha chiefs were all now in treaty relations with the Company, and a British subsidiary force, with a resident, was stationed at the Peshwa's capital, Poona; but the Marathas had not yet been effectively subjugated.

COMPLETION OF CONQUEST

Plate 80 shows the development of the British power in India during the nineteenth century. After Wellesley's recall there were twelve years of uneasy peace, disturbed by incessant raids of plundering bands (Pindaris and Pathans) from the Maratha States, encouraged by the Maratha chiefs. This brought about the final Maratha war, fought by Lord Hastings (1817–18). Its results were: (1) the annexation of all the Peshwa's lands, and of considerable territories in Central India ceded by Sindhia and Holkar. The Peshwa was pensioned off: his adopted son was Nana Sahib, of Mutiny fame; (2) the imposition of strict subsidiary treaties upon the remaining Maratha chiefs, including not only the great ones, Bhonsla, Sindhia, Holkar, and the Gaekwar, but the descendant of Sivaji at Sattara, and other minor chiefs in the south: (3) the acceptance of protectorate treaties by the numerous Rajput and other princes in Rajputana and Central India who had hitherto paid tribute to the Marathas. One State, Ajmere, was annexed.

The next important step was made by Lord Auckland, who, drawn into a war with Burma, annexed the three

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provinces of Assam, Arakan, and Tennasserim (1826), which gave to the British Government control over the greater part of the eastern shore of the Bay of Bengal. From 1837 onwards anxieties about supposed Russian intrigues in Afghanistan made the north-west frontier of supreme importance. Hence came the first disastrous Afghan War (1840–2); it produced unrest among the Sikhs in the Punjab; and it led to the annexation of Sind in 1843.

During this period the **Sikhs** played a great part, because they controlled the Punjab (country of the Five Rivers—Indus, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Sutlej) and the access to the north-western passes. The Sikhs were a warrior-sect of Puritan Hindus, never numerous, and limited to this region of India: they had been troublesome since the sixteenth century, and in the early nineteenth century, under their able leader Ranjit Singh, they made themselves masters of the preponderantly Mohammedan and Hindu population of the Punjab and Kashmir. After Ranjit Singh's death in 1839 the Sikh army, made restless by the British activities and failures in Afghanistan, became uncontrollable, and invaded British territory in 1845. They were defeated, and a vague protectorate was established. The arrangement did not last, and in 1847 the Sikhs again attacked the British territory. This time their territory was annexed.

DALHOUSIE

A period of advance almost as important as that of Wellesley came with the government of Dalhousie (1848–56). Dalhousie (1) annexed the Punjab, and organised it as a model province—this brought India to its natural limits, the mountain-barrier of the north-west; (2) fought the second Burmese War and annexed Lower Burma or Pegu; (3) took Berar, by arrangement with the Nizam, in settlement of claims upon the Nizam's territory—it is still argued that the cession was only temporary, and that this rich country ought to be returned to the Nizam; (4) within India, Dalhousie set himself to extend direct British control by refusing to recognise adopted heirs—in this way he annexed (*a*) Bhonsla's territories, which form the bulk of the Central Provinces, (*b*) Jhansi, and (*c*) Sattara; (5) on the ground of gross misgovernment Dalhousie suppressed the native government of Oudh (1856) and brought that province under direct administration. These changes doubtless tended to greater efficiency, but they helped to create the unrest which brought the Mutiny in 1857.

FIG. XLI.—INDIAN MUTINY

THE MUTINY

The area chiefly affected by the Mutiny of 1857 is shown in **Fig. XLI.** In all its more serious phases it was limited to

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the central Gangetic region, from Delhi to Allahabad. It had two foci: (1) Delhi, which was the centre of the Mogul tradition, and (2) Lucknow and Cawnpore, where the discontents of the recently annexed Oudh and of the heir to the dethroned Peshwa of the Marathas (Nana Sahib) came to a head. The Delhi centre was dealt with from the Punjab; the Oudh centre from Bengal.

LATER ANNEXATIONS

After the Mutiny, the Government was very careful to respect the rights of native princes: it even, in 1881, restored the native line in Mysore, which had been suspended in 1834 for misgovernment. The extensions of territory were now limited to the eastern and western frontiers. On the east Upper Burma was annexed, after the third Burmese War, in 1886, but much of its territory remained under Native State administration (the Shan States, etc.). On the west, Baluchistan was brought under British control as essential to the right organisation of the frontier, and Quetta became an important military centre; in the extreme north British control was extended in 1895 over the Swat Valley for the same reasons, but in all these districts the administration of the Native States was not interfered with. In 1901 the frontier districts were organised as a separate province, with Peshawar as its capital.

THE PROVINCES OF INDIA

The administrative divisions of modern India, which are indicated on **Plate 80**, are mainly due to the stages in the British conquest. All the provinces set out below have legislative councils with partially responsible governments under the India Act, 1920. Each of the major provinces has a number of small Native States under its supervision; the greater Native States, such as the Nizam's dominions, Mysore, Baroda, and Kashmir, and the numerous big and little States, which are grouped under Rajputana and the Central India Agency, are under the direct supervision of the central Government at Delhi and Simla. There are more than 600 Native States, covering more than 700,000 square miles, or more than one-third of the total area of India.

(1) The **Presidency of Bengal**, as it is to-day, is only a part of the historic presidency: almost the whole of Bihar and Orissa was included in the Bengal which Clive won and Hastings organised; and Assam was also included from 1826 to 1874. This huge province, too big for efficient administration, was divided in 1905 into two—Western Bengal (with Bihar) and Eastern Bengal and Assam, the latter having Dacca as capital. This division, which is shown in the Inset, **Plate 80*a***, pleased the Mohammedans, who greatly preponderate in Eastern Bengal, but aroused fierce opposition among the Hindus. It was accordingly changed in 1911 into the tripartite division shown in **Plate 80*a***. Bengal approaches more nearly than any other province to linguistic unity, the Bengali language being spoken by a large majority of the population.

(2) The **Presidency of Madras** consists mainly of the conquests of Wellesley in Southern India, together with the Northern Circars—one of the earliest British acquisitions. The province speaks three main languages—Tamil in the south, Telugu in the north-east, and Canarese in the west.

(3) The **Presidency of Bombay** includes very diverse elements: (*a*) the island of Bombay, acquired in 1668; (*b*) certain small territories acquired from the Marathas by Warren Hastings and Wellesley; (*c*) the lands of the Peshwa annexed in 1818; (*d*) Sattara, annexed by Dalhousie; (*e*) the quite distinct province of Sind. There are many small Native States within the province of Bombay; and many languages are spoken, including Canarese, Marathi, Gujarati, and Sindi.

(4) The **United Provinces** of Agra and Oudh include (*a*) the lands taken from Oudh by Wellesley, and (*b*) the old kingdom of Oudh, annexed by Dalhousie. This dichotomy is recognised in the two capitals of Allahabad and Lucknow: Agra was the administrative centre only in the earlier period of the province. The "U.P." (to use a common abbreviation) are the true "Hindostan," the centre of Indian history, and include most of the famous historic cities. Their predominant language is Hindustani, either in its Sanskritic form (and script), when it is called Hindi, or in its Persianised form (and script), used by the Mohammedans, when it is called Urdu. This is the most widely distributed vernacular in India.

(5) The **Punjab** is the province conquered by Dalhousie: it has a number of Native States attached to it, notably the Sikh States of Patiala, Kapurthala, and Nabha. Its commonest language is Punjabi, a dialect of Hindustani.

(6) The **Central Provinces** include the old lands of the Maratha chief Bhonsla, annexed by Dalhousie, together with other lands taken by Lord Hastings from the various Maratha chieftains.

(7), (8) The new provinces of **Bihar** (with Orissa) and **Assam** have already been discussed.

(9) The great province of **Burma**, created by the three Burmese wars, is not in any strict sense, save for administrative purposes, a part of India, from which it differs markedly in race, language, religion, and social usage.

The great districts of Central India and Rajputana consist of innumerable Native States, supervised by an Agent for the Governor-General.

SECTION V

THE UNITED STATES

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Plate No. 51, North America

In the history of Geography the North American Continent as depicted upon a modern map is the resultant of innumerable processes. To think of its discovery as an event is misleading. Before map makers could draw pictures of the coast-line facing the Gulf of Mexico, for example, it was necessary for them to piece together the reports of the adventurous seamen who first touched it at various points, and to correct them by the more detailed information furnished by later voyagers. Before the Florida peninsula and the northward sweep of the Atlantic coast-line could be added with precision, it was necessary to piece together, interpret, and visualise the reports of innumerable other adventurers, to make trial maps, to correct them as new geographical facts emerged. Columbus returned from his first voyage (**Plate 43**) on March 15, 1493, confident in the belief that he had reached the region of Japan by a western voyage, and without a suspicion of the fact that a vast continent, and a far vaster ocean, really lay between his

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actual landfall in the Bahamas and the goal of his endeavour, the eastern coast of Asia, the Golden Cathay which Marco Polo had so convincingly described in his epoch-making *Book . . . concerning the Kingdoms and Marvels of the East* (1298) (Polo routes on **Plate 30-31**). Columbus's first voyage had revealed only a few of the Bahama Islands and the northern coasts of Cuba and Haiti. His second (1493–6) led him only to a few of the Lesser Antilles, Jamaica, and the southern coasts of Cuba and Haiti. His third voyage (1498–1500) gave him a dim idea of the southern coast-line bordering the Caribbean Sea, from Trinidad to the Pearl Coast of South America ; and his final voyage (1502–4) revealed only the continuation of that coast-line from Cape Honduras to Darien. When he died at Valladolid, on May 20, 1506, the nature of his discoveries was still unsuspected. His life's ambition had not been realised and generations passed before advancing knowledge enabled the world to understand the nature of his real achievement, and to give him the proud title of the Discoverer of America.

I. SLOW DISCOVERY OF THE EASTERN COAST-LINE OF NORTH AMERICA

During those generations many adventurers whose work history has recorded, and more whose contributions remain anonymous, patiently added the information which enables the geographer of the present day to sketch with precision the coast-line of North America from Darien to the head of Baffin Bay, plotting the latitude and longitude of every mile of North America's Atlantic coast-line.

Among the most famous of the contributors whose names remain parts of the record called history are the *Cabots* (1497, 1498) (**Plate 43**), discoverers for King Henry VII of England, whose vague reports of visits to regions which the Northmen had visited during the years 1000–1347 (**Plate 42**) laid the foundation of England's subsequent claims in North America ; Pinzon, Solis, and Vespucius, voyagers for Spain, who in 1497–8 followed the coast-line of the Gulf of Mexico from Honduras to Florida and the Island of Bermuda ; Gaspar de Cortereal, who in 1500 reached the shores of Labrador and discovered the entrance to the Hudson Strait ; Ponce de Leon, the Spanish voyager, who in 1513 started from the region of the present St. Augustine in the land which he named Florida, and followed the peninsula as far as Tampa Bay ; Estevan Gomez, deserter from Magellan's great expedition (1519–22 : *see* **Plate 43**) around the earth, who is supposed to have traced the North American coast-line from Labrador to Carolina at some undetermined date between 1524 and 1526 ; and Giovanni da Verrazano, an Italian sailing for Francis I of France, who, in 1524, steered southward from Cape Hatteras and then northward to the regions now shown on the map as Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, entering *en route* the harbours of New York and Newport. But it is certain that there were many nameless contributors to the fund of information which, by the end of the first quarter of the sixteenth century, enabled geographers to sketch, though roughly, the Atlantic coast-line of North America.

In 1534 Jacques Cartier carried the banner of Francis I of France from Labrador, through the Straits of Belle Isle, into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and located the Bay of Chaleurs, Cape Gaspé, and Anticosti Island. In 1535 he again visited North America in search of a passage to China. Entering the St. Lawrence River, he ascended to the site of the present city of Quebec in a search for a passage to the Pacific. At the rapids he found further progress impossible. The La Chine Rapids and the City of Montreal stand on the map to-day as reminders of that strange search for a land which lay on the opposite side of the globe.

During all this period, 1492–1535, sailors sought straits (**Plate 59** *b* for search for the North-west Passage) which would lead them through the continent whose westward extension no one suspected, and into the South Sea (Pacific Ocean) which the Spanish adventurer Vasco Nuñez de Balboa had discovered in 1513, by crossing the narrow isthmus west of the Gulf of Mexico. For years the idea persisted that the northern continent was a narrow peninsula, like the Isthmus of Panama ; and many adventurers besides Cartier sought in vain for some strait which would enable him to cross it. As late as 1606 Richard Hakluyt, an authority upon the geography of North America as known to his generation, instructed the expedition sent to establish the first permanent un-English colony in America to search out such a strait, and so to plant their colony "that the passage to the other Ocean [i.e. the Pacific] will be the more easy." When Henry Hudson in 1609 ascended the Hudson River to the site of the present city of Albany, he was searching for the strait leading to the Pacific ; and when a year later he passed through Hudson Strait, to discover and perish, deserted, in Hudson Bay, he was still intent upon the same quest. But the map of the regions north of the North American Continent is still in the making, and each adventurer, in his explorations toward the North Pole, adds to the facts needed for its ultimate completion. (*See* **Section III** of this Plate for outline of history of development of northern coast-line of North America.)

II. THE ORIGIN OF THE MAP OF NORTH AMERICA'S WESTERN COAST-LINE

From the days of the Polish geographer Stobnicza, whose map of 1512 joins North and South America, pictures in fair outline the Atlantic coast-line, and indicates the unknown Pacific coast-line by straight, ruled lines, to Balboa's discovery of the Pacific in 1513, there is only a single year ; but that year has caused much speculation among historians of geography. Did Stobnicza know of the South Sea before Balboa ? or was his map misdated ? or did it represent only a fortunate guess ? No one has as yet been able to answer those questions with precision. We know, however, that Spaniards followed up Balboa's discovery of the Pacific Ocean (1513), Espinosa pushing northward to Costa Rica, followed by Gonzalez, who in 1522–3 reached Nicaragua. Pizarro pushed southward to reach and plunder the rich treasures of Peru ; and innumerable explorers followed, pushing northward and southward along the Pacific coast. Some are named in history ; many lie in unremembered graves. Chief among them all was the English seaman Francis Drake, who sailed from Plymouth on November 15, 1577, traversed the Straits which Magellan had discovered in 1520, followed the coast northward looking for a strait leading eastward into the Atlantic, until he crossed the 40th parallel, and then returned to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope, the first adventurer to carry his vessel around the earth, Magellan having been killed in the Philippine Islands. (Drake's route on **Plate 49.**) Drake's explorations, supplemented by those of Juan de la Fuca in 1592 (if we accept the story as history), by Vizcaino in 1603, and others less notable, completed the rough exploration of the Pacific coast-line of North America as far as the Strait of Juan de Fuca.

Meanwhile there had begun Russia's eastward advance, similar in many respects to the westward advance of the nations of Western Europe. The lure for the early Pacific explorations of Spain was gold ; that for Russia's eastward movement was furs and walrus ivory. By 1639 Cossack horsemen stood on the eastern extremity of Asia, gazing out upon the Pacific Ocean. In 1728 Vitus Bering (**Plates 64** and **79**, *a* and *b*) passed through the strait which bears his name, and in 1741, still intent upon exploration, he sighted the lofty peak of Mt. St. Elias, thus establishing Russia's claim to Alaska. The discovery of Bering Strait

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finally disposed of the old idea that the American Continent was but a huge peninsula projecting into the Pacific Ocean.

The exploration of the coast-line north of the Strait of Juan de Fuca soon followed, and important information was gathered regarding the coast-line already explored. In 1776, for example, Heçeta discovered the mouth of the Columbia River, and sixteen years later, in 1792, Captain Robert Gray ascended it, thus laying the foundation for America's claim to the Oregon region. Meanwhile, Juan Perez and Martinez had discovered Vancouver Island (1774), which had been explored by Juan Francisca de la Bodega y Cuadra in 1775, by Captain James Cook in 1778 (Route on **Plate 64**), and by Van Couver in 1792. The explorations of Cook and Van Couver in search of a north-eastern passage to the Atlantic are indicated on this plate, but more clearly on **Plate 59, Inset** *b*.

III. THE NORTHERN COAST-LINE OF NORTH AMERICA

But for generations after Captain Cook's third voyage (1776–80, **Plate 64**) mariners continued to seek a waterway north of the North American Continent, connecting the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans ; but not until 1854 was it found, Sir Robert McClure proving at last that America was a continent separate and distinct from Asia. The details of this three hundred years' search for the passage are more clearly presented on **Plate 59** *b*.

IV. INTERIOR EXPLORATIONS

During the centuries which passed while the nature of the American coast-line was being revealed, other adventurers were discovering the nature of the interior of North America. **Plate 51**, therefore, shows the routes followed by the most famous of the explorers, Spanish, French, British, and others, from Ponce de Leon (1513–21) to Stefansson (1914–17).

(*a*) *Spanish*—With Ponce de Leon in Florida in 1512, Balboa crossing the Isthmus of Panama (1513), Cortez penetrating from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico (1519–21), interior exploration began ; and it never ceased. In 1519 Pineda explored the northern coast of the Gulf of Mexico, penetrated beyond the Rio Grande, and mapped the Gulf coast from Florida to Vera Cruz. On his westward march he discovered the Mississippi River, which he named Río del Espíritu Santo. In 1535 Cortez extended his explorations to the peninsula of Lower California. In 1528 Narvaez had led an expedition into the region north of the Gulf of Mexico, to be drowned, with many of his followers, at the mouth of Pineda's Río del Espíritu Santo. For years the fate of the expedition remained a mystery, until, in 1536, one of his officers, Cabeza de Vaca, appeared again in Spain, with three companions, and tales of eight years of thrilling hardships on the borderland of a region with wonderful cities, with doors studded with precious stones. These cities, known to him only by rumours in Indian tongues which he did not speak, he ventured to identify as the long-sought "Seven Cities of Cibola."

In 1539 De Soto, with 600 men, undertook the conquest of Florida, and from Tampa moved westward, to find his grave in the "Father of Waters," as the Indians called the Mississippi, and to be remembered, in disregard of Pineda, as its discoverer.

In 1540 Coronado began his long search for the Seven Cities, to discover instead that appalling natural phenomenon the Grand Canyon of the Colorado, and to prepare the way for the later conquest of Santa Fé. His best-mounted men are supposed to have penetrated to the centre of the present state of Kansas. But, like those who had preceded him, he sought not colonisation, but plunder, and this he failed to find. With the end of the expedition he returned to Mexico, to meet an end which history has not recorded. Before his return, Alarcón (1540) had explored the coast of California to 36° north latitude ; but the gold and jewels of the Seven Cities had not been found, were never found, for no such cities ever graced the North American Continent.

Melchor Diaz, sent by land from San Gerónimo in search of Alarcón in 1540, lost his life in a vain effort to find him. Cabrillo and Ferrelo in 1542 and 1543 continued the examination of the coast and California, but added little to the knowledge of the interior. Juan de Oñate in New Mexico, and Alonso de Leon and Domingo de Terán in Mexico and Texas, extended knowledge of the interior within comparatively narrow areas ; but when the seventeenth century closed, little was known of the vast interior of the continent north of Texas ; and when Fathers Dominguez and Escalante, three-quarters of a century later (1776), sought to penetrate from Santa Fé to California, they still faced a virgin wilderness.

(*b*) *French*—During those same weary years the French in the north had followed Cartier's route up the St. Lawrence and pushed westward from La Chine Rapids and Montreal. After an unsuccessful attempt to plant a colony in the St. Lawrence region, the French turned to the more congenial climate of the far south ; but their operations in that region must be considered as colonisation rather than exploration. (*See* **Plate 52**.)

With the grant to Sieur de Monts in 1603 of a Commission to colonise a region "extending from the 40th to the 46th degree," King Henry IV of France renewed the interrupted process of internal exploration toward the headwaters of the St. Lawrence. The leading spirit of the great adventure from 1603 to 1635 was Samuel de Champlain. A master of the science of navigation, a skilful cartographer, a graceful writer, intrepid explorer, and a soldier with some years of experience as quartermaster in the French army, he was admirably equipped for the task of building up a French Empire in America.

Champlain's experiences of 1603 along the Atlantic coast and over previously explored regions of the St. Lawrence were important, but his later achievements were epoch-making. In 1608 he founded Quebec ; in 1609 he discovered Lake Champlain ; in 1615 he reached the distant Lake Huron. The master-pen of Parkman thus sums up his career : "Samuel de Champlain has been fitly called the Father of New France. In him were embodied her religious zeal and romantic spirit of adventure. Before the close of his career, purged of heresy, she took the posture which she held to the day of his death (1635). His life . . . is the true beginning of her eventful history."

Joliet and Marquette, with five other Frenchmen, in 1673, voyaged down the Wisconsin and Mississippi Rivers, exploring also the Fox and the Illinois, and left a written description of their discoveries. Their work was extended to the south by René Robert Cavelier Sieur de La Salle, greatest of America's internal explorers, who in 1669 had penetrated to the Ohio, which he discovered. His greatest achievements, however, began in 1679, when he established Fort Crèvecœur, on the Illinois River, as starting-point for discoveries southward. In 1680, when he returned to this fort prepared for his great adventure, he found it destroyed by the Iroquois Indians. Its garrison, under Henri de Tonty, however, had made good their escape, and rejoined La Salle at Mackinaw. After reorganising their forces at Fort Frontenac, Tonty and La Salle, with thirty Frenchmen and a band of Indians, crossed to the Mississippi by the Chicago portage and the Illinois River, and descended in canoes to the mouth of the Mississippi, which they reached on April 9, 1682, thus laying the foundation of the Imperial domain which La Salle named Louisiana. After erecting a cross inscribed : "Louis the Great, King of France and of Navarre, reigns this 9th of April, 1682," La Salle accomplished the tedious journey up-stream to

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St. Louis, where he left Tonty to protect the interests of France, and returned to Quebec (November 1683).

In 1684 he led a band of colonists from France with the purpose of establishing a French colony at the mouth of the Mississippi. He unfortunately mistook Matagorda Bay, in Texas, for the mouth of the Mississippi, and, when the mistake was recognised, he boldly undertook to make his way overland to Canada to secure help. After three months of wandering and hardship, he was murdered by his followers and left to bleach in the sunshine of Louisiana which he had come to rule.

Meanwhile Duluth, cousin of Tonty, had opened trade with the Indians roaming west of Lake Superior, and Accau, Hennepin, and many others had extended knowledge of the rich district south of that lake. In 1697 Le Sueur secured a permit to work the copper-mines of that district, and in 1699 he led 29 men from the mouth of the Mississippi, where he had landed on returning from France, to the district now known as Minnesota, where he built Fort L'Huillier in 1700.

From that date French explorations penetrated into many new districts of Louisiana. In 1713 Saint-Denis was sent to the Red River district to open a trade route across Texas into Mexico. His route (1714), marked D E, from Natchitoches westward to Rio Grande, is clearly marked on **Plate 51.** In 1719 Du Tisné began his explorations in the Osage and Arkansas regions and the establishment of French trade with the Indians west of St. Louis. In the same year, 1719, La Harpe began a series of expeditions also designed to establish Indian trade. The geographical by-produce of his four years of exploration was a trader's knowledge of the region lying west of the Mississippi from the mouth of Trinity River, eastward across the Sabine, and northward into the district between the Red and the Arkansas, where his trail crossed that of the Mallets, who, in 1739 and 1740, explored the western area from the mouth of the Illinois River to Santa Fé and as far north as the southernmost bend of the Platte River.

When Louisiana passed, in 1763, from France to Spain, therefore, the Mississippi Basin from the Great Lakes to the Gulf had been roughly explored, and it was the French preparations for effective occupation which in 1754 sent Lieutenant-Colonel George Washington, of Virginia, across the Alleghany Mountains to defeat at Great Meadows, and to the commencement of his career as a world-figure. From this engagement, and Braddock's disastrous expedition, historians date the Old French and Indian War, which, in 1756, was merged into the great Seven Years' War which banished the French flag from the North American Continent, in the adjustments of the Peace of Paris in 1763.

But all these explorations had but dimly revealed the nature of the vast interior of the North American Continent; and when President Jefferson, after purchasing Louisiana in 1803, attempted to inform Congress of the state of the country, he incorporated in his message a description of the new province so fantastic as to subject its author to ridicule. In 1804, however, he sent Lewis and Clark to explore and report upon its character, and between 1804 and 1806 they penetrated from the mouth of the Missouri to the mouth of the Columbia River (November 7, 1806), which Captain Robert Gray had entered from the Pacific Ocean fourteen years before (1792), thus strengthening the American claim which Gray's voyage had established. Their Journal, published a few years after their return to St. Louis in 1807, gave the first authentic information about the great North West, information which was speedily supplemented by Zebulon Pike (1806) and many later explorers. Of these only the routes of Long (1820), Smith (1826–9), and Frémont (1843–5) are shown on **Plate 51.** But the Oregon trail, the Santa Fé trail, and the Spanish trail, the chief frontiersmen's highways of later days, are also laid down.

With Lewis and Clark the long progress across the Continent, begun by Champlain two hundred years before, was finally completed.

(c) *English*—In the field of internal exploration during the years just described, England played no conspicuous part. Her ocean-trained adventurers preferred to contend with her rivals on the sea rather than in the forests and plains of the interior of North America. Frobisher, Davis, and Hudson remained intent upon the coveted North West Passage (*see* **Plate 59**), and their successors, Button, Baffin, Fox, Cook, Parry, Ross, and the other British explorers shown in the list to **Plate 51**, had that same goal chiefly in view. Their contributions to the map of the interior were in the main incidental. Samuel Hearne, for example, made extensive explorations in the far north, between 1769 and 1770, while seeking to reach the Coppermine River by an overland route. He succeeded in this task in July 1771; but his real incentive was the North West Passage, which was not discovered until 1854, when Sir Robert McClure penetrated from Bering Strait to Davis Strait. It was McClure's voyage, built upon the work of those who had gone before, which solved the problem of the North West Passage. (*See* **Inset *b*** to **Plate 59** for detailed map.)

But the process of exploring the northern coast-line of North America was not completed by McClure's discovery. Nansen, Sverdrup, Stefansson, their predecessors and their successors, while intent upon the Pole, have made and are making their incidental contributions to the map of North America (*see* **Plate 77 *b***).

Plate No. 52

Successful colonisation depends upon many factors, not least important of which is geography, involving as it does the question of easy subsistence. The North American Continent, as described by the long line of adventurers who preceded actual colonisation, was an invitation to Europeans seeking to enrich their own nations and themselves by planting colonies. The abundance of fish was remarked during the Cabot voyages, and subsequent explorers confirmed the report. The richness of its soil, abundance of its vegetation, and magnificence of its forests, combined with a climate resembling that of Europe in all important respects, added to its attractiveness as a region for colonisation. Its convenient harbours, especially along the North Atlantic coast, combined with its large rivers, offered easy access to regions which the geologist, Professor Shaler, unhesitatingly declared "the finest region for the use of man that the world affords"; while the barrier of the Appalachian Mountain Range defined the area of early settlement and prevented the dispersion of colonists so characteristic of the early French colonisation of Canada. As settlement extended beyond the mountains, however, it was greatly aided by the vast waterways draining the central plateau: for the rivers of North America afford more navigable waters than all the streams of the vast continent of Asia combined; and the Mississippi River, later to play a controlling part in the expansion of the colonies, has more navigable water than any river except the Amazon.

Immediately west of the coast-line stretched the finest forest area that has existed within historic times, outside the tropics; and the as yet unknown mineral resources offered the world's largest deposits of mineral substances which have contributed to the development of man. California, Nevada, New Mexico, Colorado, with Old Mexico, have furnished more gold and silver than any other one mountain district; and the Appalachian region has furnished over $60,000,000 of the world's supply of gold. And it is probable that no continent has contained a larger iron deposit than North America, while its deposits

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of coal are about eight times as great as those of Europe, and greater than those of any continent save perhaps Asia. (*See* **Plates 90** and **91.**)

Most of these geological facts became evident only as the continent became populous; but the early colonial prospectors did not fail to mark the important geographical advantages offered by the area later to be known as the Thirteen British Colonies in America; and the fact that the physical conditions closely resembled those of Europe made colonisation by the Nordics a comparatively easy venture.

Early colonisation of North America, save for the Spanish establishments referred to under **Plate 50,** began, so far as the United States are concerned, with—

I. THE ENGLISH IN THE SOUTH

With the end of the Spanish sea-power (1588–96) came a sudden change on the part of England towards the North American Continent. The Cabot voyages (1497–8) had given her a claim by virtue of discovery; and the English seamen of the sixteenth century, by their victory over Philip II, had opened to her the opportunity to plant colonies without danger from prowling Spanish destroyers of the Menéndez type. In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnald made a trading trip to New England, whose success was a demonstration of the value of cargoes to be gathered there. Martin Pring (1603) and George Weymouth (1605) supplemented the demonstration; and in 1606 King James I chartered the Virginia Company, whose task was the planting of English colonies in Virginia, which was defined as extending from the 34th to the 45th degree of north latitude.

The first venture, made under the Plymouth sub-company in the spring of 1607 by George Popham at the mouth of the Kennebec River in Maine, failed immediately, and in 1608 was abandoned. But that of the London Company at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607 succeeded after a period of distressing hardships. To it is accorded the honour of being the first permanent English colony in America.

II. THE DUTCH

The establishment of Jamestown (1607) and the granting of its new geographical area to the London sub-company of the Virginia Company (1609) were immediately followed by the assertion by the States-General of Holland, in 1614, of its sovereignty over the region lying between the 40th and the 45th parallels north latitude. The Dutch furthermore established in 1614 a trading-post on Manhattan Island, and an interior collecting-station near the present site of Albany. Thus at the very outset did the Dutch seize upon the two strategic trading-points of the continent, and they at once followed up their advantage by opening a lively fur trade with the "far Indians."

Cautiously with keen eyes for points of trading advantage the Dutch next occupied other points within the limits of their territorial claims, Bergen, New Jersey (1617), Fort Nassau (opposite the site now occupied by Philadelphia) (1623), Good Hope (now Hartford, Connecticut) (1628). Their aim was soon manifest to occupy the Hudson, the Delaware, and the Connecticut Rivers, and make good their somewhat vague claim based upon the voyage of Henry Hudson in 1609 by actual occupation. In 1625 they gave further proof of this intention by sending over two shiploads of cattle, horses, sheep, and swine. These, distributed among the colonists who had arrived in 1623, made what had at first been mere trading-stations into colonies.

By 1626 New Netherland, as the Dutch called their province, had become in truth a real colony; but it was coveted by England, who considered its territory her own, and was conquered by her in 1664, its name being changed to New York. Nine years later in 1673 however, the Dutch recaptured it and restored its Dutch name; but in the Peace of Westminster in 1674 it again became New York and remained English until the American Revolution.

III. THE FRENCH SETTLEMENTS

In 1603 the King, Henry IV of France, granted to Sieur de Monts authority to colonise "from the 40th to the 46th degree" north latitude; and in 1604 de Monts made a settlement at the mouth of the St. Croix River; but the site proved unsuitable and the colony was promptly removed to the eastern side of the Bay of Fundy, to found Port Royal. De Monts then returned to France, with his associate Samuel de Champlain, whose later explorations in the west are described under **Plate 51, section** (*b*), and included the establishment of Quebec in 1608. Port Royal was re-established in 1610 by Poutrincourt, who placed his son, Biencourt, in command; but in 1613 it was captured and burned by an English expedition from Virginia, under Captain Argall, who on his return journey toward Jamestown forced the Dutch in New Netherlands to raise the British flag. But it gave place again to the Dutch flag as soon as Argall's sails had disappeared below the horizon.

From the departure of Argall from Nova Scotia to the final cession of the peninsula to England in the settlement of Utrecht, in 1713, its French inhabitants suffered many vicissitudes, passing from French to English, from English to French control with pathetic frequency, as the dates on the map indicate.

In general, the French proved to be slow colonisers, and when the seventeenth century closed there was little, within the area now known as the United States, to mark the efforts of her early adventurers save the substantial additions which they had made to the maps of her northern areas, the Mississippi Valley, and the regions along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. It has been estimated that in 1700 there were not more than 1,000 French settlers living within the vast region south of the St. Lawrence, in which Frenchmen had done so much by way of exploration.

IV. ENGLISH IN THE NORTH

In striking contrast with the failure of French colonisation south of the mouth of the St. Lawrence River, the English colonies had made during the seventeenth century most encouraging progress, despite the fact that their first settlements came after those both of the French and of the Dutch.

It was to the New Netherland Company that the Pilgrims made the first application when planning their migration to America; but they demanded military protection, which the New Netherland Company, soon to be superseded by the Dutch West India Company, could not promise. The Pilgrims therefore turned to the London Company and secured permission to settle within its grant; but a storm intervened and drove them to Cape Cod, within the territory of the Plymouth Company. Here the *Mayflower* anchored on December 16, Old Style, or December 26 according to the present calendar, and nine days later the Pilgrim colony began to build their town and with it the History of New England.

At once religious differences began the process of sifting the wheat of English dissenters, whose vanguard the Puritans had become. The Pilgrims at Plymouth had come to America as separatists; but the larger colony at Massachusetts Bay which had followed them was planted by Nonconformists, who were seeking a home where their ideas of the relationship between Church and State might

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dominate. They held a royal charter, granted in 1628, which gave to them or rather to certain gentlemen still in England, all lands lying between points three miles north of the Merrimac River and three miles south of the Charles River, while the Pilgrims at Plymouth were in effect squatters, their patent having reference to regions quite distant from their present settlement.

The Nonconformists' first colony was planted at Salem in 1628, but times in England were troubled, and many other Nonconformists were eager to join them. Therefore in 1629 it was decided to bring the charter to Massachusetts, and with it came "the great emigration" of 1630, a thousand Nonconformists who laid the foundations of Boston, Charleston, Roxbury, Dorchester, Watertown, and Newtown, later called Cambridge. Distrustful of Pilgrim separatists, Roman Catholics, and Church of England men alike, they spread themselves over the region, each group rapidly reinforced by Nonconformists from England. Within ten years 20,000 immigrants had landed in Massachusetts; and religious differences within the sect itself had driven Roger Williams to Rhode Island, where he founded Providence in 1636, and Mrs. Anne Hutchinson to the island of Aquidneck (1637). Pocassett (later Portsmouth), Newport, and Warwick soon arose in the same region. In 1643 Roger Williams secured from the Commissioners of Plantations, appointed by the London Parliament, a document called the Patent of Providence Plantations, which granted to the Rhode Island towns the "full power and authority to rule themselves, and such others as shall hereafter inhabit within any part of the said tract," but no use was made of this power until 1647.

Other religious controversies drove Massachusetts men to Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor (1635–6); and in 1639 these towns joined into a miniature republic under a constitution called the "Fundamental Orders of Connecticut," which James Bryce has declared the "first truly political written Constitution in History." It was indeed the first written Constitution that created a Government.

Still other religious differences sent other Massachusetts colonists under John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton to found New Haven in 1638, and Milford and Guilford, Connecticut, in 1639. Stamford was added to the group in 1640, and in 1643 these four towns united into the republic of New Haven; but in that same year, 1643, Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven together organised the New England Confederation, which bound them together in a loose and ineffective Union until 1684.

The history of these three Confederations, Connecticut, New Haven, and the New England Confederation, is rich in lessons for all men seeking to understand the difficulties incident to confederate government, whatever its size, or the character of its constitution.

Before the New England Confederation had completed its second decade King Charles II in 1662 had joined the Republic of New Haven and the Republic of Connecticut into one colony by means of a charter so liberal in character that it was kept as the fundamental law of Connecticut even after the Revolution had separated it from Great Britain, and indeed down to 1818.

The hasty grants, made sometimes to companies, sometimes to individuals, took too little cognisance of the extent of earlier grants, and as a result there were many rival claims to identical areas, a fact which caused endless strife and litigation, not alone between nations claiming identical areas, but between chartered English colonies and individual promoters of English colonies. The conditions under which settlement began in Maine and New Hampshire, for example, caused generations of local conflicts. There were many settlements in Maine, besides the French settlements, before the grant to Gorges fron the Council in 1635, and therefore before his subsequent charter from the King, but they were subject to no external government until Captain William Gorges arrived in 1636 to act as Deputy Governor under the terms of that grant. These settlements were in general projections from Massachusetts, and in 1668 their inhabitants petitioned to be taken under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, which had formerly exercised a sort of vague control over them. Four commissioners were therefore sent to Maine from Massachusetts Bay, and in July 1668 assumed jurisdiction "by virtue of their charter." But protests from Gorges continued until March 1677–8, when he sold his title to Massachusetts for £1,250. On March 17, 1679–80, Massachusetts took formal possession by proclamation, and Maine continued to be a part of Massachusetts until long after the peace of 1783.

The first settlement in New Hampshire was made at Little Harbour in 1623 by a Scotchman, David Thompson, who had received a patent from the Council of New England in 1622. He lived at Little Harbour until 1626, when he removed to Thompson Island in Boston Harbour. Edward Hilton, a London fishmonger, settled at Hilton's Point (Dover Neck) shortly after Thompson's departure, and in 1630 secured a patent from the Council of New England which he and his associates soon sold to some merchants of Bristol. These in turn transferred their claim, or at least part of it, to Lord Say, Lord Brook, and other friends of Massachusetts, who in 1632 sent over a number of settlers from England. For several years there was no authorised Government, and the question of ownership was complicated by the fact that in 1629 Mason and Gorges had obtained a patent to the region between the Merrimac and the Kennebec.

Massachusetts was anxious to bring the entire region under her control, and as confusion succeeded confusion the inhabitants tended more and more to seek the protection of her stable Government. Therefore in 1641 by the Act of Union, the Piscataqua Settlements became part of Massachusetts; but the rival claimants continued to assert their claims until 1679, when the Crown granted to New Hampshire a separate charter and Government. A state Constitution was formed in 1776, and thus New Hampshire became one of the Original Thirteen States, and her three delegates, Bartlett, Whipple, and Thornton, signed the Declaration of Independence.

V. ENGLISH IN THE SOUTHERN AND CENTRAL AREAS OF NORTH AMERICA

The middle and southern sections of the Atlantic coast had, meanwhile, received settlements destined to become the nuclei of future States. In 1638 Swedish colonists landed on the west shore of Delaware Bay and purchased from the Indians lands in the neighbourhood of the present Newcastle and Wilmington, calling the region New Sweden. They built Fort Christina, whose presence was at once resented by the Dutch at Fort Nassau. For a dozen years the colony of New Sweden was suffered to remain, but in 1655 it was taken by the Dutch, only to pass at last with other Dutch possessions to Great Britain in the final adjustments of 1674. (*See* **Section II** of discussion of **Plate 52.**)

It was embraced in the Penn grant of 1682, and continued under the Government of Pennsylvania until after the Declaration of Independence, becoming the State of Delaware in September 1776.

St. Mary's, in Maryland, was founded by Lord Baltimore in 1634; Albemarle, in North Carolina, was settled by Virginia dissenters in 1653; Charleston, in South Carolina, was founded in 1670. Thus by 1689 the English had a working basis in all of the original Thirteen States save Georgia, which was founded in 1733 by James Oglethorpe, with Savannah as its nucleus.

Plate 52 indicates by colour the areas of these English

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colonies as they appeared at the time of the "Glorious Revolution" (1689); actual colonial establishments are in solid colours, and colonial claims to unsettled areas in lighter tints; while the insets indicate the complicated conditions of an earlier epoch.

Plate 63. This represents North America, and particularly the area of the present United States, as it was from 1689 to 1783. The changes which the political geography of North America underwent during this long period of conflict were of course colossal; but throughout the geography of the individual English colonies in America remained practically unaltered. The thirteenth, Georgia, was, however, chartered in 1732, to be taken over by King George II as a royal province in 1752. Its three delegates, Gwinnett, Hall, and Walton, signed the Declaration of Independence in 1776, but its first Constitution was not adopted until a year later.

So far as the eastern sections were concerned, however, the boundaries of all the colonies save Georgia were well defined by the accession of William and Mary in the English Revolution of 1688. But the vague ideas prevailing when the charters were granted had left the question of their western areas sadly complicated. The phrase, westward from sea to sea, or its equivalent was the dominant motif in the colonial charters and in it lay, even before the war period inaugurated by the coming of William and Mary, the seeds of intercolonial strife.

With the accession of King William lapsed the Stuart policy of destroying colonial charters and consolidating old areas into new administrative units. The news of King William's landing in England had been the signal for the restoration of banished charters and the re-establishment of the popular Governments which the plans of King James II had menaced.

The period of seventy-four years which followed (1689–1763) was dominated by a series of wars between England and France, each of which was reflected in corresponding conflicts in America. These were:

I. The War of the Palatinate, called in America King William's War, 1689–97.
II. The War of the Spanish Succession, called in America Queen Anne's War, 1701–13.
III. The War of the Austrian Succession, known in America as King George's War, 1744–8.
IV. The Seven Years' War (1756–63), which the Americans called the French and Indian War (1754–63).

The distressing era closed with the victory of James Wolfe on the Plains of Abraham, in which Wolfe and his gallant French antagonist, Montcalm, were killed, and by which the rivalry between England and France for possession of North America was decided in favour of England. The capture of Quebec (1759) is properly classed among the world's decisive battles, for it altered the course of history. The Peace of Paris (1763) which marked the final settlement stripped France of all of her North American possessions with the exception of two small islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. To Great Britain she ceded her territory east of the Mississippi River. To Spain, her ally, she ceded her dominions west of the Mississippi, with the Island of New Orleans which controlled the navigation of that commercial highway of the west, but under the treaty Great Britain was to enjoy the right of freely using its navigable waters. Spain on her part ceded to the victorious English her colony of Florida in exchange for Havana, which British troops had seized during the conflict.

The world aspects of this epoch-making Peace of Paris are shown in **Plate 64.** It would be difficult to exaggerate the importance of this settlement in the history of the British Colonies in America. Relieved of the hitherto ever-present fear of a French invasion from Canada, and provided with native-born leaders like Washington, who had proved their worth, they were free to turn their attention to the defence of the free institutions which they had developed, partly through the liberal provisions of royal charters, partly by virtue of English traditions which they had brought with them during the migrations of the era of colonisation.

Even before the end of the Seven Years' War (1756–63), changes had taken place in England which presaged new conflicts. In 1760 George III had become King of England. The failure of the Navigation Acts, by reason of the colonists' skill in the art of smuggling, had impelled his revenue officers to demand Writs of Assistance in 1761, and interpreting their meaning, James Otis had boldly denounced them as "a kind of power, the exercise of which cost one King of England his head and another his throne." But the fierce political conflicts which followed, and which led straight toward revolution, affected individual rights and existing liberal institutions rather than colonial boundary lines.

In the year of the Great Peace, 1763, however, the royal hand was stretched out to control the Colonies' hinterland. By Royal Proclamation of October 7, 1763, it was provided "that no Governor or Commander-in-Chief of our Colonies or plantations in America, do presume . . . until our further pleasure be known, to grant warrants of survey, or pass patents for any lands beyond the heads or sources of any of the rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean from the west or north-west." Arrangements were promptly made for the survey of a line which should define the limits of the westward movement. John Stuart, Indian agent for the southern colonies, and Sir William Johnson, agent for the northern districts, were appointed to run the line, which was obviously intended to follow the line of the mountains which formed the natural barrier between the colonies and the western territories which the colonies claimed, upon various grounds. Johnson, however, for reasons which to him appeared sufficient, ran his part of the line down the Ohio River to the mouth of the Tennessee, thus leaving east of the line of demarcation almost the whole of what is now Kentucky, and exempting that rich area from the restrictions imposed upon the reserved district. Thus Kentucky remained open to white settlers, and to this fact is due in no small measure the place of Kentucky as the pioneer commonwealth of the West.

Plate 63 shows the line of the Proclamation of 1763, and the location of established colonies' boundaries, together with a mass of detail related to the strife of nations and the movements of troops as they manœuvred for position in the long contest for a continent, which in the end left the Thirteen Colonies independent, and England and Spain the surviving contestants for what lay beyond their boundaries. It also shows the limits of the United States after the treaty of 1783, and **Insets** *a* and *b* illustrate campaigns in the wars 1689–1783.

Plate 66, while including within its dates (1750–83) the period of the French and Indian War (1754–63) described in the last paragraph under **Plate 63,** is designed to illustrate the period of the American Revolution. The long era of English-French wars, 1689–1763, had done something toward the creation of a sense of intercolonial unity; but when in 1754, the British Board of Trade and Plantations had attempted to solidify that unity by means of the Albany Plan of Union, it had failed. The colonists had rejected it because it seemed to them to add to the power of the Crown; and the English Government had regarded it with suspicion as tending to stimulate dangerous, democratic tendencies in the colonies. Within half a dozen years however there appeared a new force, driving the reluctant colonies toward union. In 1760 King George III ascended the throne, filled with the idea of restoring the Crown to its ancient position of supremacy, a position which had been

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usurped by the old Whig Regency during the reigns of his two Hanoverian predecessors, King George I and King George II, whose indifference or incapacity had allowed the real power to pass to a body unknown to the ancient Constitution called the Cabinet. After 1689 it was useless for either King or minister to dream of defying Parliament; but as George Macaulay Trevelyan expresses it, "To bribe Parliament was one thing, to defy it quite another." And the old Whig leaders had reduced that bribing of Parliament to a fine art. By the skilful use of rotten boroughs, able and for the most part truly patriotic leaders had acquired ascendancy over Parliament, and without definitely abandoning the machinery of representative government had gained a position of supremacy which the young King George III determined to take from them. William Pitt, the great leader whose genius had made possible the victorious outcome of the Seven Years' War, saw clearly that to thwart both designs he must secure a redistribution of seats in Parliament, destroy the rotten boroughs, and thus restore to the people their right to control their own representative assembly.

To the King, as to William Pitt, it was evident that to allow American colonies to maintain the astonishingly liberal government which they enjoyed must mean in the end the defeat of the royal plan to rule England as an autocratic monarch. Therefore when the King, through the instrumentality of a ministry which soon became (after Pitt resigned the post of Prime Minister, 1761) the medium of the royal will, sought to deny to the colonial Assemblies the right to control the colonial revenues by the Stamp Act of 1765, William Pitt and his new Whig followers openly declared their sympathy for the colonies.

The American Revolution was thus not an attempt to gain new privileges, but an attempt to protect institutions already in operation in the colonies. It should not be regarded so much as a war between England and America as a contest between reactionary ideals and progressive ideas on both sides of the Atlantic. And from the moment of Lord North's resignation, on March 20, 1782, Great Britain has never been governed by a Cabinet and Prime Minister responsible to the King alone, but by the chosen agents of the House of Commons. The success of the American cause therefore meant the restoration of popular government in England. "It was a matter of great importance," writes George Macaulay Trevelyan, "that, owing to the catastrophe in America, the attempt to regain political power for the Crown came to an end when it did. If the personal government of George III and of his children after him had been protracted into the next century, the democratic and Reform movements of the new era . . . must have become anti-royalist and very probably Republican."

Plate 66 illustrates the areas of military conflict during the period of thirty-three years of almost constant warfare, when the nations of Europe manœuvred for position upon the Continent of North America. From the movement of France to join her Canadian province with her claims at the mouth of the Mississippi to the peace of 1783, which recognised the independence of the United States of America, there were twenty-nine years (1754–83) of almost incessant warfare, during which America merely reflected the conflicts in Europe. The French and Indian War (1754–63), known in Europe as the Seven Years' War (1756–63), occupied the first nine years of this period, and was the fourth of the long series described under **Plate 63**.

The French and Indian War was the result of France's attempt to link up her Canadian possessions with the vast province which La Salle had named Louisiana (*see* **Plate 51** *b*), by the establishment of a series of military posts which should prevent the English from expanding to the west. Their vanguard had scarcely reached Presque Isle in pursuance of the plan when Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, sent Major George Washington with a small party to protest in the name of the King of England, who regarded their plan as inimical to Great Britain's claims. Washington on December 11, 1753, met the French Commander at Fort Le Boeuf and delivered the warning, only to return to Williamsburg in January 1754 bearing a letter which asserted France's control of all the continent beyond the Alleghanies. The building of a French fort at the junction of the Allegheny and the Monongahela Rivers was France's more convincing reply, and therefore in 1754 Washington, now lieutenant-colonel, was ordered to carry another protest. In case of another defiance, however, he was to "drive them off by force of arms," according to orders which Dinwiddie had received from the King's Government in London.

At Great Meadows (July 1754) his effort to "drive them off" ended in defeat and the surrender of his little company. From this beginning the conflict spread, to be merged in 1756 into the Seven Years' War which banished the French flag from North America.

By the Peace of Paris (1763) France ceded to Great Britain all of her possessions and claims east of the Mississippi, and to Spain those west of the Mississippi. Spain gave her colony of Florida to Great Britain in exchange for Havana. The same year (1763) King George III issued his Royal Proclamation (described under **Plate 63**); but before the line of 1763 was surveyed, the conflict between the British Government and the Thirteen British Colonies in America had become acute; and within twelve years after the Peace of 1763 the Revolutionary War had begun, with the battles of Lexington and Concord (April 19, 1775).

Plate 66 represents the geographical areas involved in that conflict. It is, however, obviously impossible to represent on maps the abstract issues involved in the American Revolution, virtual representation as opposed to real representation, the proper location of the taxing power, the power to control judges, appoint governors, and control military establishments, or the far-reaching theories of liberty and equality announced in the Virginia Resolutions of 1769, the Resolves of the Continental Congresses of 1765, 1774, and 1775, and the Declaration of Independence of 1776. And it is likewise impossible to narrate the military campaigns which ensured to America the right to put these theories into practice; but the history of these campaigns may be readily followed on this Plate.

Inset *a* illustrates especially the campaign of 1778–9, in which General George Rogers Clark, with forces equipped and financed by Virginia, conquered the North West Territory, thus strengthening Virginia's claim to that region based upon her interpretation of her charter of 1609.

Plate 73, in four sections, represents the expansion of the English colonies, as defined in their respective charters (*see* **Section** *a* of this Plate), into a united nation reaching from sea to sea (**Section** *d*).

Section *a* illustrates the colonial grants, often overlapping, and therefore involving potential controversies which later became actual contests for territory. The Virginia Company, which established the first permanent English colony (Jamestown, Virginia, 1607), extended, under the charter of 1606, from the 34th to the 45th parallels. For the northern portion, lying between the 38th and the 45th degrees, the charter of 1606 created a sub-company, the Plymouth Company; and for the southern portion, lying between the 34th and the 41st degrees, it created a sub-company, the London Company. The common region, from the 38th to the 41st degrees, was left open to the sub-company which should first colonise it, it being provided, however, that no colony might be planted by either sub-company within one hundred miles of a settlement already made by the other company.

In 1609 King James I granted a new charter, completely

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separating the London Company from the Plymouth Company. Its chief geographical interest lies, however, in the fact that it enlarged and redefined the grant of the London Company. To it was now assigned "all that space and circuit of land, lying from the Sea Coast (200 miles northward and 200 miles southward from Point Comfort) . . . up into the land throughout from sea to sea, *West and North-west.*"

It would be difficult to devise a more ambiguous phrase than the words "*from sea to sea, west and north-west,*" or one more pregnant with future boundary controversies. If the northern line ran west and the southern line north-west, in one possible interpretation of the charter, Virginia would be in fact a triangle, and it would not meet the further charter requirement that it extend "from sea to sea." But if, as was obviously intended, the southern line ran west and the northern line north-west, Virginia would include practically the whole of the English claims in North America, north of a fixed southern point defined in the charter as "to the southward 200 miles" from Point Comfort.

Section *a* shows, furthermore, the westward extension of the subsequent grants to the other colonies, Massachusetts, Connecticut. Thus three colonies held claims which extended to the regions north of the Ohio River. Later New York laid claim to that same region, as the inheritor of the Iroquois lands after the tribes moved west; and Virginia's claim, under her liberal interpretation of the charter of 1609, was strengthened by the conquest of this North West Territory by General George Rogers Clark, whose campaign of 1778–9 was planned, financed, and executed by Virginia alone.

So long as all four colonies formed parts of the British Empire, these rival claims caused little difficulty: but with the Peace of Versailles of 1783, circumstances were altered. The regions west of the Mississippi remained a Spanish possession, France having assigned them to Spain in 1763, and the adjustments of 1783 confirming Spain in her possession of them. But, as **Section** *b* shows, England allowed the American claim to all territory east of the Mississippi River, south of the Great Lakes, and north of the Floridas, which England ceded to Spain. At once the conflicting claims of Virginia, New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut in the region north of the Ohio (the North West Territory) became dangerous. The controversies arising from them caused Maryland to refuse assent to the Articles of Confederation—America's first written Constitution—until assurance was given that each of these States would surrender to the Confederation its claims within the North West Territory. This assurance was not given until 1781. Maryland then signed the Articles of Confederation, and the history of the United States as a legally constituted confederation began.

Virginia ceded her claims to the North West Territory in 1784, Massachusetts in 1785, and Connecticut in 1786. Connecticut, however, managed to retain until 1800 a strip of territory south of Lake Erie, marked "Western Reserve" on the map. This reserved area she later sold and wisely employed the proceeds in building a public-school system for the people of Connecticut.

In 1787 the Congress of the Confederation drafted the Ordinance of 1787 for the Government of the Public Domain thus acquired by the nation, and it later became the model system of territorial government within the continental possessions of the United States of America. For this reason the Ordinance of 1787 ranks in importance next to the Declaration of Independence and the Federal Constitution, which, in 1789, supplanted the Articles of Confederation.

Section *b* illustrates the other adjustments of territory made in the treaty of 1783, and in subsequent agreements up to the year 1803, when the United States purchased from France the ill-defined area called Louisiana, which Napoleon had reclaimed from Spain by the secret Treaty of San Ildefonso in 1800.

Out of the hinterland of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia were formed, after many contests, the States of Kentucky (1792) and Tennessee (1796) and the Mississippi Territory (organised in 1804), which was subsequently divided to form the States of Mississippi (1817) and Alabama (1819). Until 1795, however, Spain insisted that her Florida possessions extended northward to the mouth of the Yazoo, the boundary which England and America had agreed should be the northern boundary of Florida should it go to England in the final adjustments of 1783. In 1795 by the Pinckney Treaty, however, the southern boundary of the United States was fixed at "a line, beginning on the River Mississippi, at the northernmost part of the thirty-first degree of north latitude, which from thence shall be drawn due east to the middle of the Chatahuchee River."

Section *c* shows the United States as it appeared after the Louisiana purchase of 1803, and indicates the expansion and boundary adjustments between 1803 and 1830. The most important of these adjustments were made by the Florida Treaty of 1819, which confirmed Spain's claim to Texas, and fixed America's western boundary as follows: "Begin on the Gulf of Mexico, at the mouth of the river Sabine, in the sea, continuing north, along the western bank of that river to the 32nd degree of latitude: thence, by a line due north, to the degree of latitude where it strikes the Rio Roxo of Nochitoches, or Red River; then following the course of the Rio Roxo westward to the degree of latitude 100 west from London and 23 from Washington; then, crossing the said Red River, and running thence, by a line due north, to the river Arkansas; thence, following the course of the southern bank of the Arkansas, to its source, in latitude 42 north; and thence, by that parallel of latitude, to the South Sea." This line is indicated on the Plate.

A part of what had been Spanish West Florida (*see* **Section** *b* of this Plate) became part of the State of Louisiana when it was admitted to the Union in 1812; and other parts were added to Mississippi and Alabama, thus giving them frontage on the Gulf of Mexico. East Florida was purchased from Spain by the treaty of 1819, was organised as a territory in 1822, and became a State in 1845.

Section *c* shows the original States of the Union as they appeared after the surrender of their western land claims; the territories created out of those cessions and out of territory acquired from foreign nations; and the boundary adjustments effected by the British-American agreement of 1818 regarding the Canadian boundary line east of the Oregon territory, which territory was held in joint occupation from 1818 to its final, peaceable division in 1846.

The line of the Ordinance of 1787 is also shown, its new importance being due to the fact that it separated the western regions in which slavery was permitted from those in which it was recognised. It shows also the Missouri Compromise line of 1820.

Section *d* illustrates the growing importance of slavery as an issue which during the two decades immediately preceding the Civil War, dominated all other issues. By the operation of economic law all the States lying north of the Mason and Dixon line, surveyed originally merely to mark the southern boundary of Pennsylvania, became free territory by 1804, while those south of that line found slavery economically profitable and retained it. The western end of that line joined the line of the Ordinance of 1787, which divided the free soil of the North West Territory (free by provision of the Ordinance itself) from the slave territory south of it. In 1820, by the Missouri Compromise, the line 36° 30′ was run west from the end of the line of the Ordinance of 1787, and slavery north of it, save in the new State of Missouri, was for ever for-

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bidden, while the regions south of it were left open to slavery. Thus the settled areas of the United States were, by 1820, almost equally divided between Freedom and Slavery. The House of Representatives, based upon population, was furthermore definitely and irreparably controlled by the Free States. The hopes of the Slave States therefore centred in the control of the Senate, through which they hoped to be able to defend "the peculiar institution."

The Mexican War (1846–8) resulted in the acquisition of all Mexican territory north of the Rio Grande and the Gila Rivers—that is, Texas in the widest sense of the name, New Mexico, California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming.

By the compromise of 1850 arrangements were made for adjusting all pending disputes which the war, and this vast acquisition of territory, had aroused. Its most far-reaching provision was that in the organisation of the new territory the inhabitants of each unit organised as a territory should be left free to determine for themselves whether that territory should forbid slavery or permit it. This principle was of course inconsistent with that of the Ordinance of 1787, and of the Missouri Compromise, where the decision had been made by Congress, and not by the inhabitants of the territories in question. At first the effect of this change of principle was not observed; but in 1854 Stephen A. Douglas took advantage of it to declare that Popular Sovereignty, as this territorial self-determination was called, had superseded the principle of Congressional control, and that the Missouri Compromise line had been erased. Three years later, in the Dred Scott Decision of 1857, the Supreme Court of the United States declared that slaves were property; that property is guaranteed protection by the Constitution; that slavery therefore had a right in the territories of the Nation; and that the Missouri Compromise which had forbidden it in the territories north of 36° 30′ had never been a law, and was null and void.

Therefore, the Slave States and the Free States reverted more and more to force as the ultimate arbiter, until in the campaigns of the Civil War the question was finally settled, to be legally settled later by the amendments to the Constitution which ended all slavery within not only territories, but States as well.

Section *d* indicates also the lines and areas involved in these various attempts at a peaceful adjustment of the question of slavery and the issues which emerged. It also indicates the dates of the erection of new territories, and of the admission of new States, up to the year 1865, when the Civil War ended in complete victory for the Free States.

The double-page Plate, 78 and 79, presents on its main section the assembled results of developments already described in detail upon earlier section maps, i.e. the territory effectively controlled by the colonies before the War of Independence, the adjustments made by the Peace of 1783, the extent of the Louisiana purchase of 1803, the acquisitions and territory surrendered in the Florida Treaty of 1819, the territorial adjustments resulting from the Mexican War (1846–8), and the settlement of land claims in the Oregon region effected by the British-American Treaty of 1846. The Gadsden Purchase of 1853 and the Alaska Purchase of 1867 are also clearly shown, the latter in **Insets** *a* and *b*, which furnish detailed information regarding the discovery, settlement, and gold-fields of Alaska, and the boundary dispute which was settled by arbitration in 1903.

On the main map are shown also the boundaries of the States, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, the dates of admission of new States into the Union, and the ultimate adjustments of important boundary disputes, notably the Texas boundary questions and the north-east boundary dispute.

The dispute with Mexico regarding the boundaries of Texas as an independent nation from 1836 precipitated the Mexican War. The disputed area east of the Rio Grande is clearly marked on the map where Southern Texas appears. It was the Mexican invasion of this disputed area which caused President Polk to declare, in his war Message of May 11, 1846: "Mexico has passed the boundary of the United States, has invaded our territory, and shed American blood upon American soil," a statement apparently inconsistent with the fact that, in the Florida Treaty of 1819, America had abandoned her sound claim to Texas, based on the Louisiana Purchase. But it should be remembered that Polk's election to the Presidency had been due to his expressed determination to regain the Texas which had been abandoned in 1819; and Texas, in that sense, certainly extended to the Rio Grande. The question of the extent of Texas, after she threw off the Mexican control, was, however, a question of fact which might have been ascertained by investigation; but the Mexican War settled it by force in favour of the strongest.

The end of the war found another Texan boundary dispute threatening the peace of the nation. Both Texas and New Mexico claimed a section of territory represented on this Plate (100°—110°, *d*). It was adjusted, in the Compromise of 1850, by paying Texas ten million dollars to relinquish her claim, which to the anti-slavery element in America involved the transfer to the pro-slavery section of lands which had been free territory under Mexican law.

Inset *e* illustrates the history of the north-east boundary dispute with England, which might have led to a conflict such as that which the Texas-Mexican boundary dispute precipitated. The negotiators of the Peace of 1783 clearly intended that Canada on the south-east should have the boundaries defined in the Royal Proclamation of 1763; but the ambiguity of certain terms employed in the treaty, notably the identity of the St. Croix River, and the significance of the word "Highlands," led to prolonged dispute between England and the United States. An attempt to reach an adjustment through the King of the Netherlands, as arbiter, in 1827–9, failed; but in the end all issues were peacefully settled by the Webster-Ashburton Treaty of 1842, the results of which are represented upon this inset.

The two remaining insets, *d* and *f*, illustrate military campaigns of the war of 1812, and Jackson's campaigns of 1813–14 in Louisiana, and of 1818 in Florida.

This Plate, too, shows in proper perspective the routes followed by the American explorers Lewis and Clark (1804–6), Long (1820), and Frémont (1843–5). It traces also the Oregon, Santa Fé, and Spanish trails leading westward.

Plate 81 is designed to illustrate the military campaigns of the Civil War (1861–5), with the Federal States, the doubtful States (ultimately Federal), and the Confederate States distinguished by their respective colours. These campaigns are too numerous and too intricate to be discussed in detail within the limited space assigned to this section, but they may be readily followed upon the three sections of this map if these are used in connection with the excellent military histories which are available, such as J. C. Ropes, *Story of the Civil War* (two volumes); Comte de Paris, *Civil War* (four volumes); J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States from the Compromise of* 1850 (Volumes III–V).

Plate 83 illustrates the history of the New Pacific, with the results of the Spanish-American War of 1898 represented by a species of Colonial Empire requiring a type of Government different from that which had been applied to American territory within the continental boundary lines of the United States. For America's new Pacific Ocean dependencies, the Philippine Islands, Hawaii, and lesser insular possessions, the traditional territorial government of

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the model established in the Ordinance of 1787 was manifestly inappropriate. This map therefore represents a new era of American history, an era in which she began to face for the first time problems long familiar to the older nations of Europe, with their widely scattered and ethnically divergent colonial possessions.

The **Insets** *b*, *c*, and *d* give detailed information with reference to the Hawaii, the Philippines, and Samoa, which should be serviceable in following the progress of America's still pressing problem of governing dependencies.

The double-page Plate, 90 and **91,** presents graphic charts drawn to the same scale, to facilitate a comparison between the United States and the Continent of Europe, during the period 1860–1927, with reference to density of population, industries, mineral deposits, railway connections, and other subjects affecting the wealth of nations. The rapid increase of international contacts and the increasing interdependence of America and Europe make such comparisons ever more frequent, and this new feature should add greatly to the value of the present Atlas.

Plate 92 shows the United States in 1914, as part of the world there depicted. The chief additions to the territory —since the Mexican War—are the Gadsden Purchase of 1853 (which is indicated on **Plate 73** *d*); the Alaskan Territory, purchased from Russia in 1867 (best studied in detail on **Plate 79, Insets** *a* and *b*); and the insular possessions, the Philippines, Hawaii, and Tutuila in Samoa (1900) (best studied in the inset maps on **Plate 83**); Porto Rico on **Plate 50**).

Plate 96, *the World according to the Peace Treaties of* 1919–26, shows the United States and her extra-continental possessions exactly as they appeared upon **Plate 92,** *the World at the Outbreak of the Great War of* 1914. Although a participant in that war from 1917 to the end, she accepted, in the readjustments which followed victory over the Central Powers, neither new territorial possessions nor mandates.

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a.
THE EMPIRE OF ASOKA
C.250 B.C.
Scale 1:50,000,000
(800 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 200 400 600
Pillar Edicts
Rock

b.
GUPTA EMPIRE c.400 A.D. AND IRAN
Scale 1:50,000,000 (800 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 200 400 600
Gupta Empire under Samudragupta 340
Accessions under Chandragupta to 400
Southern Campaign of Samudragupta
Boundary of the Western Satraps before 395

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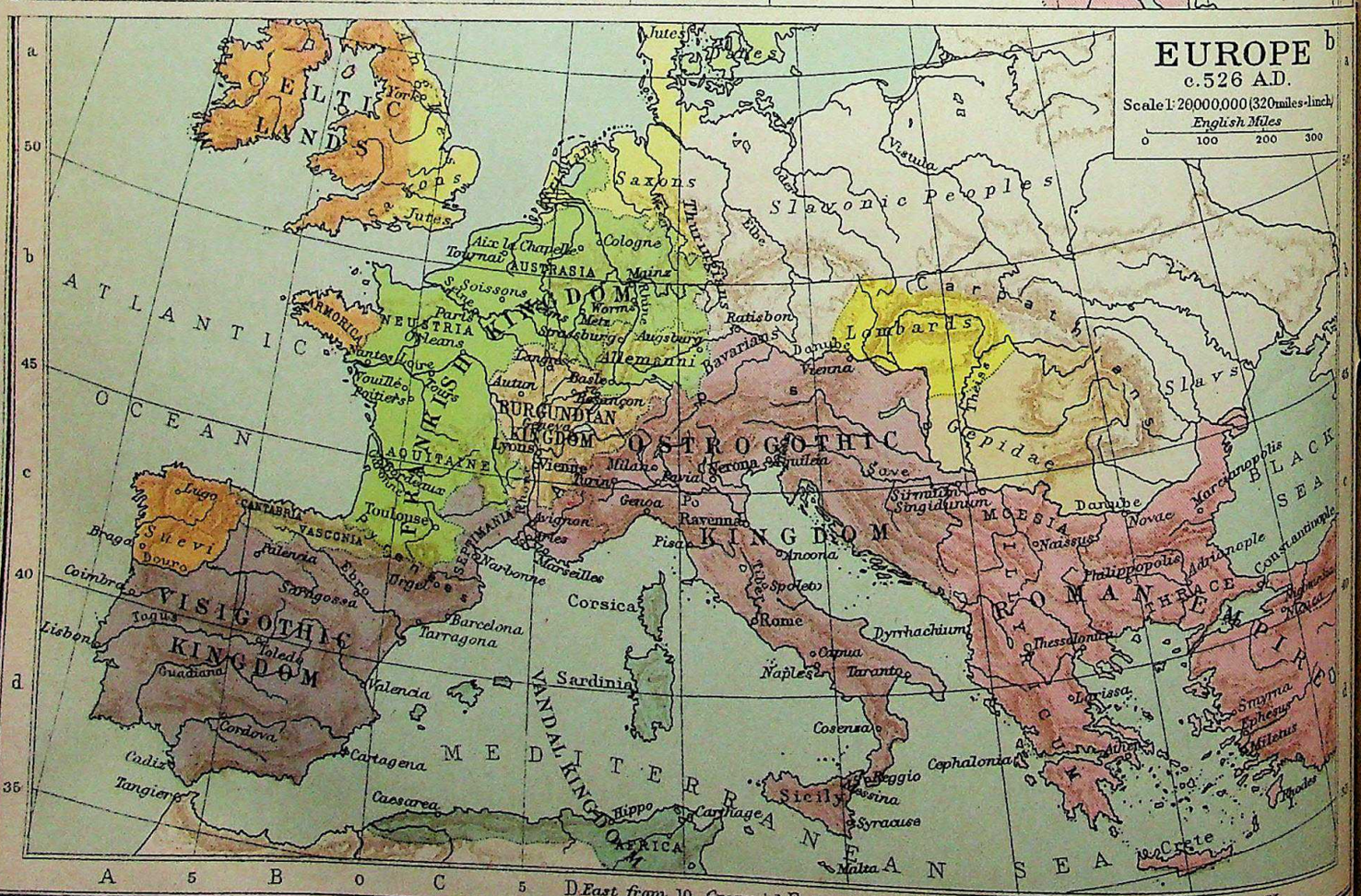

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Highlands over 3000 F.
" from 1200-3000 "
Uplands " 600-1200 "
Lowlands " 0-600 "

ITALY
about 600 A.D.
Scale 1:5,000,000 (80 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
Lombard Territories
Other Lands owed a real or nominal allegiance to the Eastern Empire

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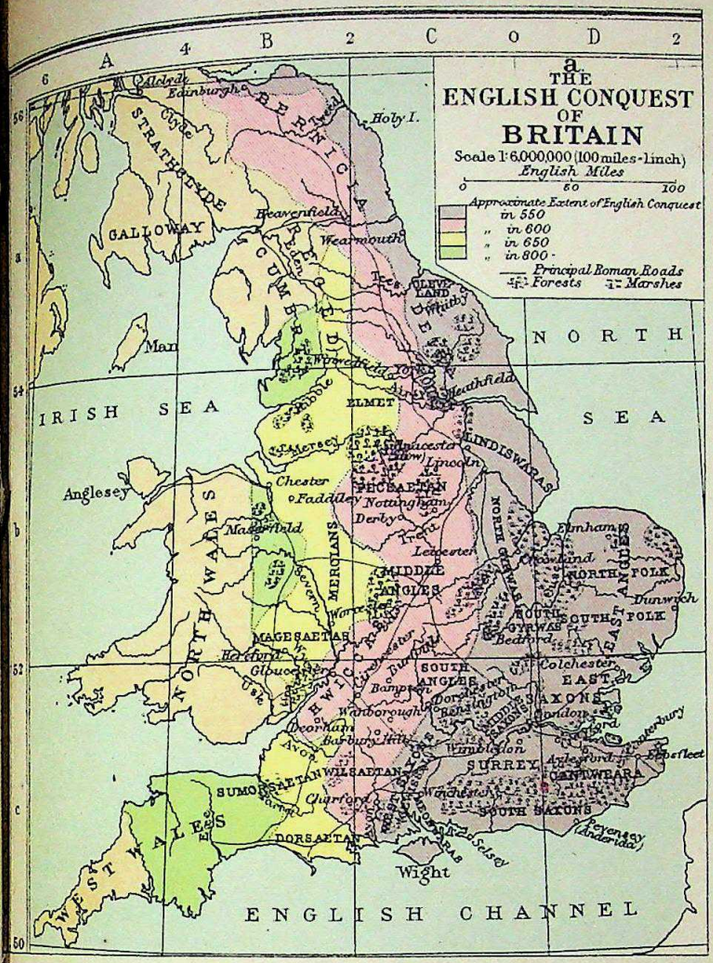

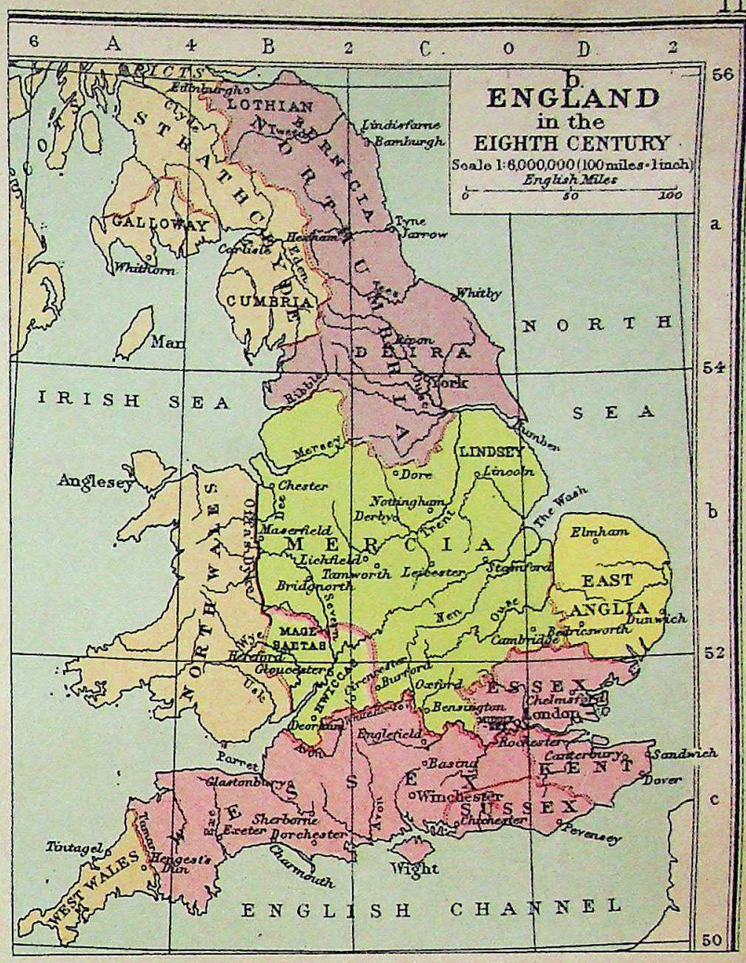

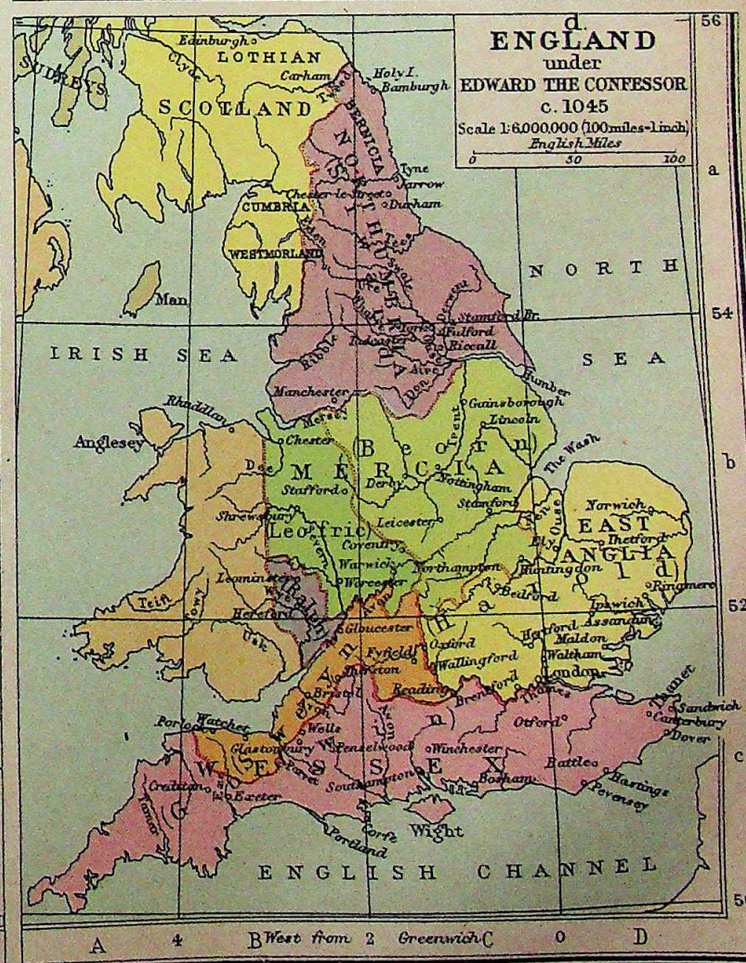

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c.
RACES OF WESTERN & CENTRAL EUROPE c. 800
Scale 1:10000000
100 Miles
Teutonic
Latin
Slav
Mongol
Northern Slav Peoples
Franks
Czech
Avars
Magyar
Bulgars
Vlach
Southern Slavs
Basques
Saxons
Frisians
Danes
Swedes
Norsemen
Wiltzes
Slavonic Peoples
NORTH SEA
ENGLISH KINGDOMS
NORTHUMBRIA
MERCIA
EAST ANGLIA
ESSEX
WESSEX
KENT
SUSSEX
WEST WALES
Lincoln
London
Winchester
Canterbury
Utrecht
Aix la Chapelle
Heristal
Cologne
Fulda
Worms
Mainz
Paderborn
Magdeburg
Verden
Bremen
Schesel
Oder
Vistula
AUSTRASIA
NEUSTRIA
BRITTANY
Rouen
Paris
Reims
Orleans
Tours
Loire
Seine
Meuse
Rhine
Moselle
Ratisbon
Passau
Bohemians
Prague
MORAVIA
Carpathian Mts.
ALLEMANIA
Salzburg
FRANK EMPIRE
Poitiers
Besançon
St Gall
Coire
Chur
Inn
Danube
BAVARIA
CARINTHIA
Drave
Save
Sclavonia
FRIULI
Verona
Milan
Pavia
Po
Adda
Bergamo
Ticino
Venice
Parma
Bologna
Ravenna
Genoa
Pisa
Siena
Ancona
Spalato
Ragusa
Cattaro
Corsica
Rome
Tiber
Gaeta
DUCHY OF BENEVENTO
Naples
Salerno
Amalfi
Bari
Sardinia
Minorca
Majorca
Balearic Is.
Valencia
Barcelona
Tortosa
Zaragoza
Huesca
Narbonne
Arles
Marseilles
Aix
Vienne
Lyons
Geneva
Burgundy
Provence
Septimania
Gascony
Toulouse
Carcassonne
Pamplona
Bordeaux
Angoulême
Perigueux
Limoges
Clermont
Cahors
Agen
Nantes
Angers
Le Mans
Chartres
Soissons
Rouen
Amiens
Ghent
Antwerp
Utrecht
Dorestad
Frisia
Hamburg
Obotrites
Bohemia
Thuringia
Franconia
Saxony
Lorraine
Alsace
Swabia
Switzerland
Basle
Constance
Würzburg
Finchy
Franks
Cologne
Aix la Chap.
Tertry
Laon
Troyes
Metz
Verdun
Ardennes
Rhone
Loire
Vouillé
Bourges
Poitiers
Auxerre
Autun
Besançon
Lombard Kingdom
Pavia
Ravenna
Milan
Verona
Modena
Lucca
Pisa
Rimini
Urbino
Perugia
Spoleto
Rome
Corsica
Sardinia
Naples
Salerno
Amalfi
Bari
Gaeta
Tiber
Cephallonia
Peloponnesus
Sicily
Palermo
Messina
Syracuse
Malta
Tripoli
Kairwan
Tunis
Algiers
Tangier
Ceuta
Gibraltar (Jebel Tarik)
Cadiz
Seville
Granada
Cordova
Toledo
Lisbon
Oporto
Santiago de Compostella
Salamanca
Zaragoza
Huesca
Tortosa
Barcelona
Gerona
Valencia
Balearic Is.
Minorca
Majorca
Corsica
Sardinia
Rome

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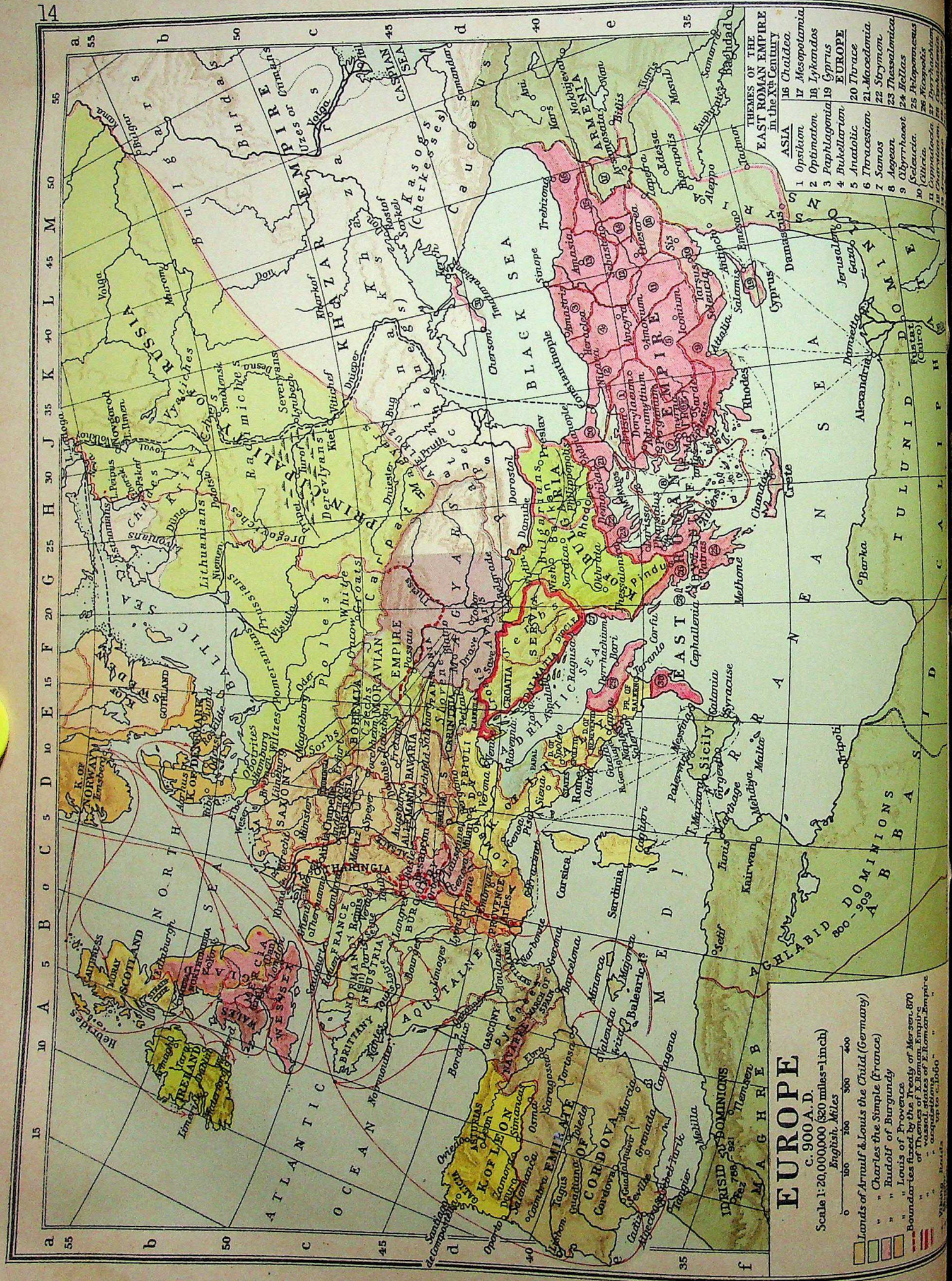
EUROPE
c. 900 A.D.
Scale 1:20,000,000 (320 miles=1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400
Lands of Arnulf & Louis the Child (Germany)
" " Charles the Simple (France)
" " Rudolf of Burgundy
" " Louis of Provence
Boundaries fixed by the Treaty of Mersen 870
" " of Themes of E. Roman Empire's
" " vassal states of E. Roman Empire
" " as existing in c. 1060
THEMES OF THE EAST ROMAN EMPIRE in the Xth Century
ASIA
1 Opsikion
2 Optimaton
3 Paphlagonia
4 Bukellarion
5 Anatolic
6 Thracesian
7 Samos
8 Aegean
9 Obsyrrhoot
10 Seleucia
16 Chaldea.
17 Mesopotamia
18 Lykandos
19 Cyprus
EUROPE
20 Thrace
21 Macedonia.
22 Strymon
23 Thessalonica
24 Hellas
25 Peloponnesus
26 Nikopolis
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
BLACK SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
RUSSIA
EMPIRE
KHAZARS
Caucasus
Pyrenees
Alps
Carpathians
ARMENIA
SYRIA
PALESTINE
EGYPT
ARABIA
ABBASID DOMINIONS
800-909
IDRISID DOMINIONS
788-921
AGHLABID DOMINIONS
800-909
CORDOVA EMIRATE
KINGDOM OF LEON
ASTURIAS
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
WALES
ENGLAND
FRANCE
BURGUNDY
PROVENCE
AQUITAINE
GASCONY
BRITTANY
NORMANDY
SAXONY
BAVARIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIAN EMPIRE
Czechs
Poles
Croats
SERBIA
CROATIA
BULGARIA
EAST ROMAN EMPIRE
Constantinople
Thessalonica
Crete
Cyprus
Rhodes
Sicily
Sardinia
Corsica
Balearics
Malta
Tripoli
Tunis
Kairwan
Cordova
Granada
Toledo
Seville
Lisbon
Oporto
Tangier
Fez
Melilla
Tlemsen
Algiers
Bona
Tripoli
Barka
Alexandria
Damascus
Jerusalem
Gaza
Antioch
Aleppo
Baghdad
Mosul
Nineveh
Nisibis
Edessa
Trebizond
Sinope
Amasia
Ancyra
Iconium
Tarsus
Attalia
Salamis
Ephesus
Smyrna
Miletus
Sardis
Pergamum
Adramyttium
Dorylaeum
Nicaea
Nicomedia
Chalcedon
Abydos
Lampsacus
Cyzicus
Methone
Corfu
Cephallenia
Dyrrhachium
Durazzo
Ragusa
Venice
Milan
Genoa
Pisa
Rome
Naples
Capua
Salerno
Amalfi
Gaeta
Sorrento
Otranto
Taranto
Brindisi
Bari
Thessalonica
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Sofia
Belgrade
Nish
Sirmium
Salona
Zara
Spalato
Ragusa
Cattaro
Durazzo
Corfu
Cephallenia
Dyrrhachium
Bari
Otranto
Taranto
Brindisi
Amalfi
Gaeta
Sorrento
Capua
Salerno
Naples
Rome
Pisa
Genoa
Milan
Venice
Ragusa
Spalato
Zara
Salona
Sirmium
Nish
Belgrade
Sofia
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Constantinople
Thessalonica
Crete
Cyprus
Rhodes
Sicily
Sardinia
Corsica
Balearics
Malta
Tripoli
Tunis
Kairwan
Cordova
Granada
Toledo
Seville
Lisbon
Oporto
Tangier
Fez
Melilla
Tlemsen
Algiers
Bona

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GERMANY
about the Year 962 A.D.
Scale 1:5,000,000 (80 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100
Boundary of the Kingdom proper
Boundaries of the Great Duchies and Marches
Highlands over 3000 Feet
" from 1200-3000 "
Uplands " 600-1200 "
Lowlands " 0-600 "
" below Sea level
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
BALTIC SEA
Schleswig
Rügen I.
Colberg
HOLSTEIN
Lübeck
Obotrites
Mecklenburg
Wagrians
MARCH OF THE BILLUNGS
Wollin (Jomsburg)
Usedom
POMERANIA
(Conquered by Germany 995)
Warnabians
MECKLENBURG
Schwerin
Redarians
Hamburg
Norden
Groningen
Lüneburg
Bremen
LANDS OF THE BILLUNGS
Verden
Salzwedel
Ukrians
Wiltzes
Lusatians
NORDMARK
Havelberg
Hevellians
Stettin
Garz
Pyritz
Werben
Walsleben
Oder
Warthe
Gnesen
Posen
Lebus
Meseritz
Spree
Elbe
Minden (Duchy)
Brunswick
Brandenburg
Magdeburg
Utrecht
Deventer
Osnabrück
Hildesheim
Halberstadt
OSTMARK
POLAND
(Tributary to Germany 983
Kingdom 1025)
LAUSITZ. LUSATIA
Glogau
Nimwegen
Münster
Ganderscheim
Bethold
Corvey
Quedlinburg
Wettin
Halle
Leipzig
Breda
Paderborn
Dortmund
Wesel
Rhine
Ruhr
Kaiserswerth
Antwerp
LOWER LOTHARINGIA
Ghent
Louvain
Maastricht
BRABANT (Duchy 959)
Aixla Chapelle
Cologne
HESSE
Fritzlar
Gerstungen
Hersfeld
Fulda
Mellrichstadt
THURINGIA
Erfurt
Weimar
Merseburg
Merseburg
MARCH OF MEISSEN
Bautzen
Liegnitz
Breslau
Silesia
Oder
Milzienians
Giant Mts.
Sudetes
MARCH OF ZEITZ
Erz Gebirge
Leitmeritz
Eger
Prague
Meuse
Liège
Namur
HAINAULT
Limburg
Anderach
Coblenz
Wetzlar
Wester Wald
Thuringian Forest
Frankfurt
FRANCONIA
Rouillon
Mainz
Ingelheim
Trèves
Luxemburg
Bockelheim
Worms
Würzburg
Bamberg
WEST
EAST
Nuremberg
MARGRAVIATE OF NORDGAU
(From Bavaria 976)
Ratisbon (Regensburg)
BOHEMIA
Pilsen
(Tributary to Germany from 950
Under Poland 1003-4)
(Kingdom 1088)
Olmütz
MORAVIA
Brünn
(From 955 to Bohemia
Under Poland 1003-29)
Bohemian Forest
Diedenhofen (Thionville)
Metz
Verdun
Spires
Saarbrücken
Weinsberg
Bar (Duchy 959)
Toul
Nancy
Strassburg
Lunéville
Clermont
Langres
Dijon
Besançon
Chalons
Rhine
Neckar
Black Forest
Jura
Rhone
Saône
Loire
Waiblingen
Stauffen
WÜRTTEMBERG
Tübingen
Eichstadt
Altenburg
MARCH OF AUSTRIA
Passau
Linz
Vienna
Pressburg
Ingelheim
Falkenstein
Zollern
Zuhringen
Sigmaringen
Ulm
Augsburg
Freising
Lech-feld
BAVARIA
Mühldorf
Salzburg
Danube
Lech
Polling
Lindau
L. of Constance
Constance
Basle
Habsburg
Zürich
St. Gall
THURGAU
COUNTY OF BURGUNDY
UPPER BURGUNDY
Neufchatel
Berne
Lucerne
Engelberg
Rhone
Freiburg
Lausanne
Geneva
Lake of Geneva
Wilten
Brenner Pass
Eppenstein
MARCH
CARINTHIA
Villach
Duchy 976
Meran
Brixen
Drave
Gotthard Pass
Spluger P.
Simplon P.
Great St. Bernard Pass
Little St. Bernard Pass
Mt. Cenis Pass
KINGDOM OF BURGUNDY (ARLATE)
Lyons
Vienne
Grenoble
Aosta
Ivrea
Turin
Milan
Como
Bergamo
Brescia
Verona
Lodi
Adda
Pavia
Cremona
Piacenza
Roncaglia
Po
Tanaro
Trebbia
KINGDOM OF ITALY
IRTURI
MARCH OF VERONA
Aquileia
(To Bavaria 952
Carinthia 976)
Venice
Trieste
CARNIOLA (MARCH)
STYRIA (MARCH)
Laibach
ISTRIA (MARCH)
CROATIA
ADRIATIC SEA
Tyrol
Inn
Salza
Enns
Leitha
Raab
Mur
Save
Hungary
Danube
Rhine
Meuse
Moselle
Saône
Rhone
Loire
Elbe
Oder
Weser
Ems
Eider
Trave
Warthe
Spree
Havel
Saale
Unstrut
Werra
Fulda
Main
Neckar
Lahn
Mosel
Aller
Leine
Ruhr
Lippe
Yssel
Zuyder Zee
North Sea
Frisian Islands
Utrecht
Deventer
Nimwegen
Breda
Antwerp
Ghent
Louvain
Maastricht
Namur
Liège
Limburg
Rouillon
Luxemburg
Trèves
Diedenhofen
Metz
Verdun
Bar
Toul
Nancy
Strassburg
Lunéville
Clermont
Langres
Dijon
Besançon
Chalons
Lyons
Vienne
Grenoble
Turin
Ivrea
Aosta
Milan
Como
Bergamo
Brescia
Verona
Lodi
Pavia
Cremona
Piacenza
Roncaglia
Venice
Trieste
Trevigio
Laibach
Villach
Meran
Brixen
Wilten
Eppenstein
Linz
Vienna
Pressburg
Passau
Freising
Augsburg
Ulm
Ratisbon
Nuremberg
Bamberg
Würzburg
Eichstadt
Ingelheim
Mainz
Worms
Spires
Weinsberg
Waiblingen
Stauffen
Tübingen
Falkenstein
Zollern
Zuhringen
Sigmaringen
Constance
Basle
Habsburg
Zürich
St. Gall
Lucerne
Engelberg
Berne
Neufchatel
Freiburg
Lausanne
Geneva
Lake of Geneva
Gotthard Pass
Spluger P.
Simplon P.
Great St. Bernard Pass
Little St. Bernard Pass
Mt. Cenis Pass
Brenner Pass
Prague
Pilsen
Olmütz
Brünn
Eger
Leitmeritz
Meissen
Merseburg
Erfurt
Weimar
Fritzlar
Gerstungen
Hersfeld
Fulda
Mellrichstadt
Weinsberg
Waiblingen
Stauffen
Tübingen
Falkenstein
Zollern
Zuhringen
Sigmaringen
Ulm
Augsburg
Freising
Passau
Linz
Vienna
Pressburg
Ratisbon
Nuremberg
Bamberg
Würzburg
Eichstadt
Ingelheim
Mainz
Worms
Spires
Saarbrücken
Weinsberg
Waiblingen
Stauffen
Tübingen
Falkenstein
Zollern
Zuhringen
Sigmaringen
Constance
Basle
Habsburg
Zürich
St. Gall
Lucerne
Engelberg
Berne
Neufchatel
Freiburg
Lausanne
Geneva
Lake of Geneva
Gotthard Pass
Spluger P.
Simplon P.
Great St. Bernard Pass
Little St. Bernard Pass
Mt. Cenis Pass
Brenner Pass
Prague
Pilsen
Olmütz
Brünn
Eger
Leitmeritz
Meissen
Merseburg
Erfurt
Weimar
Fritzlar
Gerstungen
Hersfeld
Fulda
Mellrichstadt

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West from Greenwich 0 East from Greenwich 2
NORTH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
BAY OF BISCAY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
KINGDOM OF GERMANY
DUCHY OF LOTHARINGIA
KINGDOM OF ITALY
COUNTY OF FLANDERS
D. OF NORMANDY
COUNTY OF BRITTANY
COUNTY OF MAINE
COUNTY OF BLOIS
CHAMPAGNE
D. OF BURGUNDY
COUNTY OF NEVERS
C. OF TROYES
C. OF VALOIS
C. OF VERMANDOIS
C. OF BEAUVAIS
C. OF VEXIN
C. OF PONTHIEU
C. OF GATINAIS
TOURAINE
C. OF ANJOU
C. OF POITOU
C. OF BOURBON
C. OF LA MARCHE
C. OF ANGOULÊME
DUCHY OF GUIENNE
AQUITAINE
V. OF LIMOUSIN
C. OF PERIGORD
V. OF TURENNE
D. OF GASCONY
C. OF ARMAGNAC
C. OF ASTARAC
K. OF NAVARRE
COUNTY OF BARCELONA
(SPANISH MARCH)
UPPER BURGUNDY
(REGNUM)
LOWER BURGUNDY
(ARELATE)
(REGNUM PROVINCIAE)
C. OF PROVENCE
C. OF LYONS
C. OF AUVERGNE
C. OF TOULOUSE
C. OF ROUERGUE
C. OF QUERCY
C. OF AGENAIS
C. OF VIVARAIS
C. OF VELAY
C. OF GÉVAUDAN
C. OF FOREZ
C. OF BRIOUDE
C. OF LODÈVE
C. OF MELGUEIL
C. OF NARBONNE
C. OF CARCASSONNE
C. OF RAZÈS
C. OF FOIX
C. OF CERDAGNE
C. OF ROUSSILLON
C. OF URGEL
C. OF PALLARS
C. OF RIBAGORZA
C. OF RIPOLL
C. OF BESALU
C. OF AMPURIAS
C. OF PEMBROKE
C. OF CHESTER
C. OF CORNWALL
C. OF DEVON
C. OF KENT
C. OF SURREY
C. OF SUSSEX
C. OF HAMPSHIRE
C. OF DORSET
C. OF SOMERSET
C. OF GLOUCESTER
C. OF HEREFORD
C. OF SALISBURY
C. OF BERKSHIRE
C. OF OXFORD
C. OF WARWICK
C. OF LEICESTER
C. OF NORTHAMPTON
C. OF BUCKINGHAM
C. OF HUNTINGDON
C. OF CAMBRIDGE
C. OF ESSEX
C. OF HERTFORD
C. OF MIDDLESEX
C. OF SUFFOLK
C. OF NORFOLK
C. OF LINCOLN
C. OF NOTTINGHAM
C. OF DERBY
C. OF STAFFORD
C. OF SALOP
C. OF CHESTER
C. OF YORK
C. OF DURHAM
C. OF NORTHUMBERLAND
C. OF CUMBERLAND
C. OF WESTMORLAND
C. OF LANCASTER
C. OF PEMBROKE
C. OF CARMARTHEN
C. OF CARDIGAN
C. OF MONTGOMERY
C. OF MERIONETH
C. OF CAERNARVON
C. OF ANGLESEY
C. OF FLINT
C. OF DENBIGH
C. OF MONMOUTH
C. OF GLAMORGAN
C. OF BRECKNOCK
C. OF RADNOR
C. OF HEREFORD
C. OF WORCESTER
C. OF SALOP
C. OF STAFFORD
C. OF CHESTER
C. OF DERBY
C. OF NOTTINGHAM
C. OF LINCOLN
C. OF RUTLAND
C. OF LEICESTER
C. OF WARWICK
C. OF OXFORD
C. OF BERKSHIRE
C. OF WILTSHIRE
C. OF SALISBURY
C. OF DORSET
C. OF SOMERSET
C. OF DEVON
C. OF CORNWALL
C. OF KENT
C. OF SURREY
C. OF SUSSEX
C. OF HAMPSHIR

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ENGLAND
according to the
DOMESDAY SURVEY
1086
Scale 1: 2,500,000 (40miles - 1inch)
Statute Miles
0 5 10 20 30 40 50
The Shires and Earldoms surveyed in Domesday Book are shown in flat tints, areas outside the survey in bold colours. For the modern spelling of Domesday names see Index
English Shires
English Earldoms
Welsh Principalities
Lay Regalities and Castellaries
Ecclesiastical Regalities and Castellaries
Burgi and Civitates surveyed in Domesday Book are shown thus Windesores, others thus Lundonia
Burgi and Civitates on the royal domain
Burgi and Civitates on mediate fiefs
Burgi and Civitates not named in Domesday Book
Royal castles named in Domesday Book
Royal castles not named in Domesday Book
Private castles named in Domesday Book
Private castles not named in Domesday Book
Archbishopric
Bishopric
Collegiate foundations
Monastic foundations
NORTHYMBRIA
CUMBRIA
PALATINATUS DUNELMENSIS
S. Cuthbertus
Lond
Clyveland
Nor-Treding
EVRVICSCIR
Wes-Treding
E Treding
Nor-Treding
Wes-Treding
Sud-Treding
INTER RIPAM ET MERSHAM
Peneverdant
Tateshale
Badisleia
LINCOLESCIRE
Torchesey
Lincolia
DERBY-SCIRE
Newerche
Snotingeham
Derby
Grantham
STADFORD-SCIRE
Stadford
Toteberie
LEDECESTRE-SCIRE
Tamworde
Ledecestre
Rotelande
Stanford
NORDFULC
SUDFULC
SCROPESCIRE
Scropesberie
Mathraval
Quatford
Ludlow
Wigemore
WARWICSCIRE
Warwic
NORTHANTONE-SCIRE
Northantone
HUNTEDUN-SCIRE
Huntedun
Grentebrige
Tetford
Ely
WIRECESTRE-SCIRE
Wirecestre
Wiche
HEREFORD-SCIRE
Herefort
Clifford
Pensore
BEDEFORD-SCIRE
Bedeford
Clara
Sudberie
Stewelle
DEHEUBARTH
Dyved
Brecenrauc
Morganuc
Guner
OXENEFORD-SCIRE
Oxeneford
Wincelcumbe
Tendekesberie
Bochingeham
BERROCHE-SCIRE
Berrochescire
GLOWECESTRE-SCIRE
Glowecestre
Wesse
HERTEFORDSCIRE
Herlefordе
Berchamstede
EXSESSA
Malduna
Colecestre
Haingeham
MIDELSEXE
Lundonia
Westmunasterium
Stanes
Windesores
Redinges
Medeberge
Sudwerc
Rouecestre
Deptford
Rageneia
Waltham
Wicumbe
Chichelade
Walingeford
Malmesberie
Caura
Bristou
Bade
Bradeford
Bedvinde
WILTESCIRE
Guerminstre
Alsebruge
Briwetone
Wiltunie
Sarisberie
Sceptesberie
Mileburne
Winburne
Dorcestre
Warham
HANTESCIRE
Wintonia
Hantune
Basinges
Gildeford
Goldelminge
SUDRIE
CHENT
Cantuaria
Tonebridge
SUDSEXE
Stayninges
Lawes
Hastinges
Pevenesel
Chichestre
Harundel
Brembre
Rye
Andredeswald
SUMORSETE
Barnestable
Tantone
Lanporth
DEVENESCIRE
Exonia
Brideport
Ochementone
Lideforde
DORSETE
Dorcestre
Tvinam
Albrincestune
Is. de Wiht
CORNAGE
Totenais
Tintagel
Is. de Man
Mon
Holyhead
Bangor
Bardsey
Aberystwith
Pembroke
Caermarthen
Caermerdyn
Llandaff
Llancarvan
Cardyf
Abertawy
Swansea
Carlisle
Lancaster
Preston
Ribelcastre
Manecastre
Westderbei
Doneham
Heletune
Cestre
Roelent
Frotesham
Penbrocke
Actune
Wich
Depenbech
Bangor
Meresberie
Penkridge
Licefelle
Tettenhall
Dudelei
Stantune
Wenlock
Orlebery
Muktgumeri
Ludlow
Teuteurde
Wigemore
Ruddenore
Leofminstre
Herdesleye
Clifford
Hereford
Eurias
Dene
Ecenefeld
Lonemaur
Caermerdyn
Pembroke
Estrighuel
Carlim
Llandaff
Llancarvan
Cardyf
Abertawy
Swansea
Coventreu
Rochingeham
Ramesyra
Elyensis
Tetford
Wiceford
Ysnunga
S. Edmundi
Grentebrige
Sudberie
Clara
Bedeford
Elnestow
Stewelle
Waledana
Haingeham
Colecestre
Herlefordе
Malduna
Berchamstede
Waltham
Rageneia
Lundonia
Westmunasterium
Stanes
Windesores
Redinges
Medeberge
Sudwerc
Rouecestre
Deptford
Cantuaria
Tonebridge
Goldelminge
Gildeford
Basinges
Wintonia
Hantune
Romsey
Porcestre
Stayninges
Lawes
Hastinges
Pevenesel
Chichestre
Harundel
Brembre
Rye
Andredeswald
Albrincestune
Is. de Wiht
Warham
C. Warham (Corfe)
Abedesberie
Lyme
Tvinam
Dorcestre
Brideport
Exonia
Ochementone
Lideforde
Barnestable
Tantone
Lanporth
Sarisberie
Wiltunie
Briwetone
Guerminstre
Alsebruge
Bade
Bradeford
Bedvinde
Caura
Bristou
Malmesberie
Chichelade
Walingeford
Oxeneford
Wincelcumbe
Tendekesberie
Bochingeham
Northantone
Warwic
Huntedun

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IRELAND before the ENGLISH INVASION

Scale 1: 2,000,000 (32 miles - 1 inch)

English Miles 0 10 20 30 40

- Bishoprics existing in 1150
- Monasteries
- Danish Towns underlined in Red
- Irish Clans, thus – O'Dowd
- Anglo-Norman Castles erected during reign of Henry II.

Highlands over 3000 Ft.
" from 1200-3000 "
Uplands " 600-1200 "
Lowlands " 0-600 "

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EUROPE
at the time of the
FIRST CRUSADE
c. 1100 A.D.
Scale 1:20,000,000 (320 miles=1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400
Boundary of the Empire
Routes of the 1st Crusade
(for later Crusades see Map 23)
French Royal Domain
Boundary of Regions conquered by Normans
" " " subject to Swedish control
Route of the Varangians
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ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
BLACK SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
EASTERN EMPIRE
SELJUK EMPIRE OF ICONIUM
RUM OR ICONIUM
FATIMITE CALIPHATE
BARKA
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
RUSSIA
POLAND
HUNGARY
FRANCE
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
GERMANY
ENGLAND
SCOTLAND
WALES
IRELAND
NORWAY
SWEDEN
Lithuanians
Bulgarians
Croats
Serbs
Cyprus
Crete
Sardinia
Corsica
Sicily
Balearic Is.
Malta
Jerusalem
Alexandria
Tripoli
Tunis
Barcelona
Marseilles
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Clermont
Rheims
Cologne
Mainz
Worms
Trier
Metz
Strassburg
Ratisbon
Passau
Prague
Cracow
Danzig
Posen
Breslau
Kiev
Moscow
Novgorod
Smolensk
Pskov
Polotsk
Vladimir
Volga
Caucasus
Georgia
Tiflis
Trebizond
Sinope
Nicaea
Nicomedia
Constantinople
Chersonese
Dniester
Danube
Rhine
Elbe
Oder
Vistula
Seine
Loire
Rhone
Po
Tiber
Ebro
Guadalquivir
Nile
Euphrates
Tigris
Baghdad
Mosul
Damascus
Tripoli
Beyrout
Tyre
Acre
Jaffa
Ascalon
Gaza
Rhodes
Famagusta
Antioch
Edessa
Marash
Iconium
Ancyra
Amorium
Dorylaeum
Nicaea
Brusa
Pergamus
Smyrna
Ephesus
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Rodosto
Gallipoli
Salonika
Larissa
Durazzo
Corfu
Otranto
Brindisi
Bari
Naples
Salerno
Amalfi
Gaeta
Capua
Benevento
Ravenna
Venice
Aquileia
Milan
Turin
Genoa
Pisa
Florence
Rome
Ancona
Reggio
Messina
Palermo
Syracuse
Tarragona
Valencia
Saragossa
Pamplona
Burgos
Leon
Compostella
Oporto
Lisbon
Coimbra
Toledo
Cordova
Seville
Granada
Almeria
Murcia
Malaga
Algeciras
Tangier
Fez
Tlemcen
Oran
Bona
Tunis
Kairwan
Gabes
Tripoli
Barka
Cyrene
Alexandria
Cairo
Memphis
Thebes
Aswan
Nubia
Abyssinia
Axum
Meroe
Sennaar
Kordofan
Darfur
Wadai
Bornu
Lake Chad
Timbuktu
Niger
Senegal
Gambia
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Gold Coast
Dahomey
Nigeria
Cameroons
Gabun
Congo
Angola
Benguela
Mozambique
Zambesi
Limpopo
Natal
Cape Colony
Cape of Good Hope
Cape Verde Is.
Canary Is.
Madeira
Azores
Iceland
Greenland
Faroe Is.
Shetland Is.
Orkney Is.
Hebrides
Edinburgh
Aberdeen
Dundee
Glasgow
Carlisle
Durham
York
Lincoln
Norwich
Yarmouth
Ipswich
Colchester
Canterbury
Dover
Rochester
London
Oxford
Cambridge
Salisbury
Winchester
Southampton
Portsmouth
Exeter
Plymouth
Bristol
Gloucester
Worcester
Hereford
Shrewsbury
Chester
Liverpool
Manchester
Leeds
Sheffield
Nottingham
Derby
Leicester
Coventry
Birmingham
Stafford
Lichfield
Northampton
Bedford
Cambridge
Hertford
Essex
Kent
Sussex
Surrey
Hampshire
Berkshire
Wiltshire
Somerset
Dorset
Devon
Cornwall
Monmouth
Glamorgan
Carmarthen
Pembroke
Cardigan
Merioneth
Caernarvon
Anglesey
Denbigh
Flint
Montgomery
Radnor
Brecon
Monmouth
Gwent

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THE ANGEVIN EMPIRE

Scale 1: 6,000,000 (100 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100 150

Lands under direct rule of Henry II.
Lands owing Suzerainty to him.
Lands inherited from his father.
Lands acquired or claimed through Eleanor of Aquitaine.
The French Monarchy.
Domains of the French Crown.

FRANCE at the PEACE of BRETIGNY, 1360

Scale 1: 9,000,000 (150 miles = 1 Inch)
English Miles
0 50 100 150

Lands ceded to England at Treaty of Paris, 1259
Lands held by England at accession of Edward III.
Lands ceded to England at Treaty of Bretigny, Edward III. marches to Calais

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WESTERN & CENTRAL EUROPE
in the
FIRST HALF OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY
Scale 1: 6,000,000 (100 miles - 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100 150 200
Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire
Lands under the direct rule of Frederick II
French Royal Domain in 1259
Appanages
Other French Fiefs
English Possessions
Church Lands
Area of the Albigensian Crusade
Ghibeline Cities (in Lombardy) underlined
C. County
D. Duchy
K. Kingdom
L. Landgraviate
M. March (Mark)
MG. Margraviate
MQ. Marquisate
S. Seigneurie
NORTH SEA
English Channel
Bay of Biscay
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
K. OF ENGLAND
K. OF NAVARRE
K. OF CASTILE
KINGDOM OF ARAGON
K. OF BURGUNDY
KINGDOM OF ITALY
HOLLAND
BRABANT
C. OF FLANDERS
C. OF HAINAULT
D. OF LORRAINE
D. OF NORMANDY
C. OF BRITTANY
C. OF ANJOU
C. OF BLOIS
C. OF NEVERS
C. OF CHAMPAGNE
C. OF TROYES
C. OF BURGUNDY
C. OF SAVOY
D. OF SAVOY
D. OF BAR
D. OF UPPER LORRAINE
D. OF LOWER LORRAINE
D. OF SWABIA
D. OF FRANCONIA
C. OF PALATINE
C. OF TOULOUSE
C. OF PROVENCE
D. OF GUIENNE
D. OF GASCONY
D. OF ALBRET
C. OF ROUSSILLON
C. OF FOIX
S. OF BOURBON
S. OF CHATEAUROUX
S. OF BEAUJEU
MQ. OF SALUZZO
MQ. OF MONTFERRAT
MQ. OF ITALY
C. OF SAVOY
C. OF FOREZ
C. OF ANGOULEME
C. OF LA MARCHE
C. OF AUVERGNE
C. OF POITOU
C. OF TOULOUSE
C. OF PROVENCE
C. OF FORCALQUIER
C. OF GRANDEVE
C. OF VENTADOUR
C. OF ROUSSILLON
C. OF FOIX
C. OF VENDOME
C. OF MONTPELLIER
C. OF BEARN
C. OF ARMAGNAC
C. OF ALBRET
C. OF GASCONY

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EASTERN EUROPE
c. 1250

Scale 1:15,000,000 (240 miles = 1 inch)

English Miles
0 50 100 150 200 250 300 350

- Latin Empire
- Latin States dependent on the Empire
- Byzantine States
- Church Lands
- Venetian Dominions
- Genoese "

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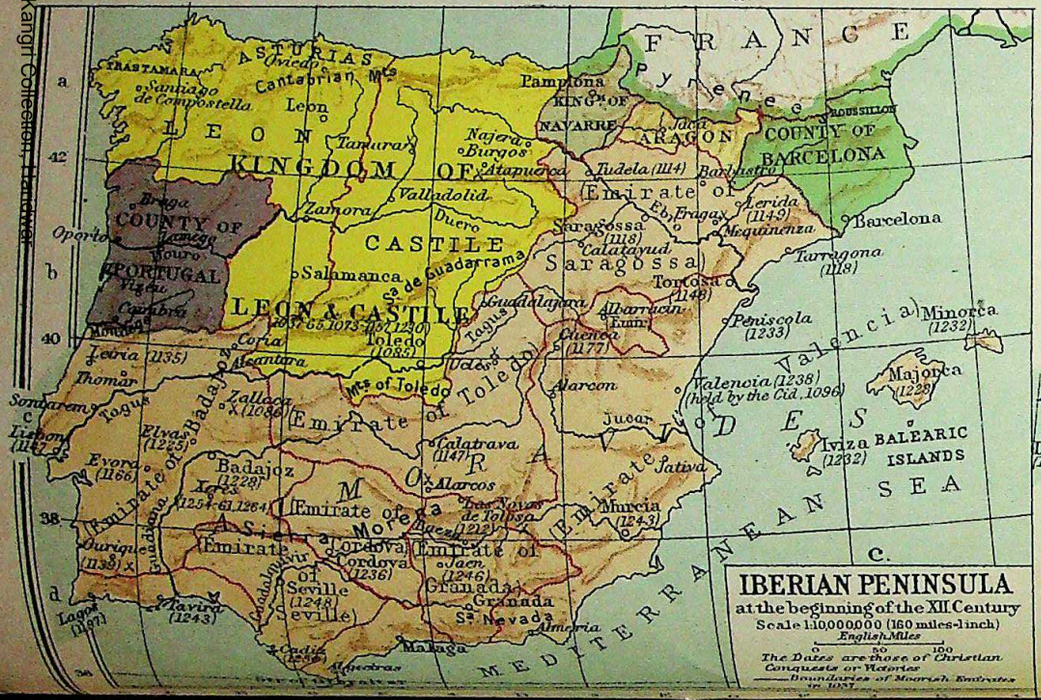

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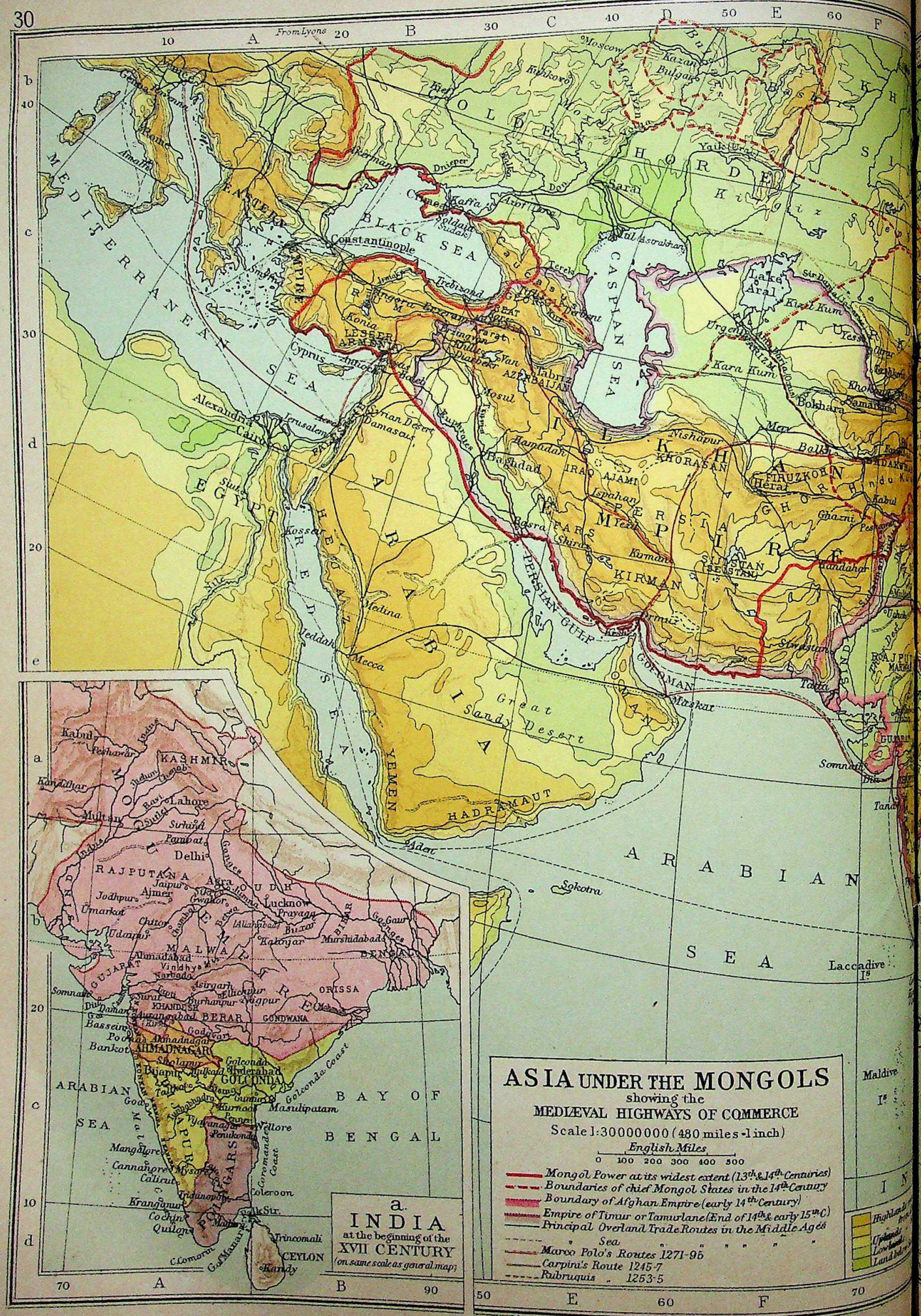

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EUROPE
MEDIAEVAL COMMERCE

Scale 1:20,000,000 (320 miles-1inch)

English Miles 0 100 200 300 400 500

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8.

THE BALTIC LANDS

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MEDIAEVAL
ENGLAND & WALES
c. 1399
Scale 1:2,500,000 (40 miles - 1 inch)
English Miles
0 10 20 30 40 50
Boroughs regularly represented from 1366 to 1485
" occasionally represented in Mediaeval Parliaments
" represented in the Model Parliament of 1295 are underlined.
Principal Castles
Boroughs with Castles
The Cinque Ports thus Dover
Lands of the Duchy of Lancaster
a. LONDON
Scale 1:75,000
½ Mile
SCOTLAND
NORTHUMBERLAND
CUMBERLAND
COUNTY PALATINE OF DURHAM
DURHAM
WESTMORLAND
YORKSHIRE
COUNTY PALATINE OF LANCASTER (1377)
COUNTY PALATINE OF CHESTER
LINCOLN
NORTH SEA
IRISH SEA
Isle of Man
ANGLESEY
CARNARVON
MERIONETH
DENBIGH
FLINT
MONTGOMERY
SHROPSHIRE
STAFFORD
DERBY
NOTTINGHAM
LEICESTER
RUTLAND
NORFOLK
Isle of Ely
HUNTINGDON
CAMBRIDGE
SUFFOLK
ESSEX
HERTFORD
MIDDLESEX
London (4)
Thames
Cardigan Bay
CARDIGAN
PRINCIPALITY OF WALES
CARMARTHEN
PEMBROKE
CO. PAL. OF PEMBROKE
RADNOR
BRECON
Brecon Beacons
MONMOUTH
MARCH OF WALES
GLAMORGAN
HEREFORD
WORCESTER
WARWICK
NORTHAMPTON
BEDFORD
BUCKINGHAM
OXFORD
GLOUCESTER
BERKSHIRE
WILTSHIRE
SOMERSET
DEVON
CORNWALL
DORSET
HAMPSHIRE
SURREY
KENT
SUSSEX
Bristol Channel
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Exmoor
Dartmoor
Cotswold Hills
Chiltern Hills
North Downs
South Downs
Solway Firth
Cheviot Hills
Cumbrian Hills
Pennine Range
York Moors
York Wolds
Lincoln Wolds
Mendip Hills
The Wash
The Peak
Tweed
Ribble
Mersey
Trent
Derwent
Avon
Severn
Thames
Berwick
Norham
Durham
Ramborough
Dunstanburgh
Warkworth
Alnwick
Morpeth
Bellingham
Tynemouth
Corbridge
Newcastle
Hexham
Carlisle
Cockermouth
Penrith
Appleby
Egremont
Barnard Castle
Richmond
Kendal
Northallerton
Middleham
Bedale
Pickering
Scarborough
Ripon
Thirsk
Malton
Boroughbridge
Knaresborough
York
Beverley
Hull
Hedon
Barton-on-Humber
Ravenspur
Skipton
Clitheroe
Preston
Lancaster
Morecambe
Leeds
Towton
Pontefract
Wakefield
Sandal
Doncaster
Conisborough
Tickhill
Grimsby
Retford
Liverpool
Halton
Wigan
Sheffield
Lincoln
Louth
Tattershall
Bolingbroke
Newcastle-under-Lyme
Malpas
Newark
Boston
Blakeney
Lynn
Derby
Tutbury
Blore Heath
Stafford
Nottingham
Melton Mowbray
Grantham
Spalding
Oakham
Stamford
Peterborough
Shrewsbury
Lichfield
Acton Burnell
Wenlock
Bridgnorth
Ludlow
Leicester
Rockingham
Fotheringhay
Thrapston
Bury St Edmunds
Ipswich
Clare
Coventry
Kenilworth
Bromsgrove
Droitwich
Worcester
Warwick
Northampton
Huntingdon
Cambridge
Bedford
Dunstable
Hertford
St. Albans
Colchester
Maldon
Chelmsford
Leominster
Weobley
Bleyard
Hereford
Ledbury
Evesham
Bewdley
Deddington
Bradley
Buckingham
Chipping Norton
Woodstock
Oxford
Abingdon
Wycombe
Amersham
Windsor
Marlow
Reading
Wallingford
Cricklade
Malmesbury
Cirencester
Tewkesbury
Gloucester
Berkeley
Chepstow
Monmouth
Ross
Radnor
Builth
Llandovery
Carmarthen
Cardigan
Tenby
Pembroke
Haverfordwest
Milford
Abergavenny
Caerphilly
Cardiff
Swansea
Bristol
Chippenham
Calne
Marlborough
Newbury
Basingstoke
Odiham
Guildford
Reigate
Tunbridge
Tenterden
Rye
Winchelsea
Hastings
Romney
Dover
Sandwich
Rochester
Gravesend
Greenwich
Southwark
Kingston
Bletchingley
Horsham
Midhurst
Petersfield
Winchester
Andover
Overton
Alton
Alresford
Farnham
Southampton
Fareham
Portsmouth
Chichester
Arundel
Shoreham
Lewes
Bramber & Steyning
Pevensey
Seaford
Newport
I. of Wight
Yarmouth
Christchurch
Poole
Wareham
Blandford
Shaftesbury
Salisbury
Wilton
Old Sarum
Downton
Heytesbury
Ludgershall
Devizes
Bradford
Bath
Wells
Axbridge
Weare
Bridgwater
Glastonbury
Taunton
Ilchester
Langport
Stoke Courcy
Dunster
Watchet
Barnstaple
Fremington
S. Molton
Torrington
Tiverton
Crediton
Bradninch
Honiton
Exeter
Chudleigh
Ashburton
Totnes
Dartmouth
Tavistock
Launceston
Tintagel
Bodmin
Liskeard
Lostwithiel
Plympton
Modbury
Looe
Fowey
Helston
Penzance
Truro
Falmouth
Weymouth
Melcombe Regis
Lyme Regis
Bridport
Dorchester
Corfe Castle
Tyburn
Mother Dun
Graves Inn
Lincolns Inn
St Giles
Covent Garden
Temple Bar
Temple
Charing Cross
Strand
Whitehall
Abbey & Palaces
Westminster
Lambeth
London Bridge
Southwark
Shoreditch
Moorfields
Fleet Ditch
Hampstead Heath
Hyde Park
Kensington Gardens
Green Park
St James's Park
Buckingham Palace
Knightsbridge
Chelsea
Fulham
Putney
Kew
Richmond
Hampton Court
Twickenham
Isleworth
Brentford
Hounslow
Staines
Windsor Great Park
Eton
Uxbridge
Harrow
Hendon
Edgware
Hampstead
Highgate
Finchley
Tottenham
Enfield
Barnet
Watford
Rickmansworth
Chorleywood
Amersham
Chesham
Wendover
Aylesbury
Thame
Henley
Maidenhead
Windsor
Eton
Staines
Egham
Chertsey
Weybridge
Esher
Kingston
Wimbledon
Croydon
Mitcham
Streatham
Clapham
Battersea
Chelsea
Westminster
Lambeth
Southwark
Bermondsey
Rotherhithe
Deptford
Greenwich
Woolwich
Blackheath
Lewisham
Dulwich
Norwood
Sydenham
Penge
Beckenham
Bromley
Orpington
Sevenoaks
Tonbridge
Tunbridge Wells
Edenbridge
Westerham
Oxted
Godstone
Reigate
Dorking
Leatherhead
Epsom
Ewell
Kingston
Surbiton
Hampton
Sunbury
Shepperton
Chertsey
Woking
Guildford
Farnham
Aldershot
Basingstoke
Alton
Petersfield
Midhurst
Haslemere
Godalming
Cranleigh
Horsham
Billingshurst
Pulborough
Arundel
Littlehampton
Worthing
Shoreham
Brighton
Lewes
Newhaven
Seaford
Eastbourne
Pevensey
Hastings
Rye
Winchelsea
Romney
Dover
Sandwich
Ramsgate
Margate
Canterbury
Whitstable
Faversham
Sittingbourne
Rochester
Chatham
Gravesend
Dartford
Erith
Woolwich
Greenwich
Deptford
Bermondsey
Rotherhithe
Southwark
Lambeth
Westminster
Chelsea
Battersea
Clapham
Streatham
Mitcham
Croydon
Wimbledon
Kingston
Surbiton
Hampton
Sunbury
Shepperton
Chertsey
Weybridge
Esher

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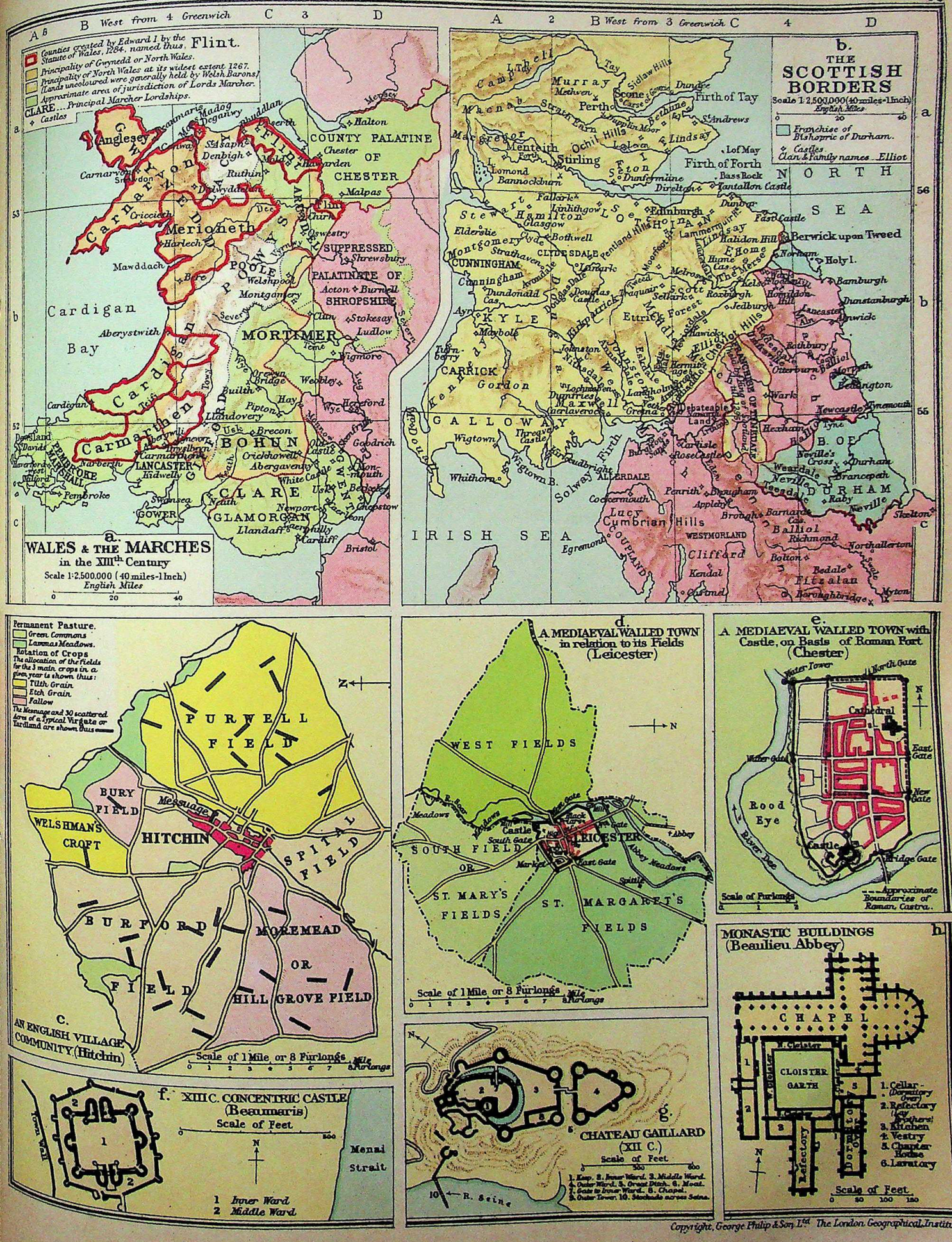

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WESTERN & CENTRAL EUROPE
in the
SECOND HALF OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY
Scale 1: 6,000,000 (100 miles - 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100 150 200
Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire 1477
Boundaries of Electoral States within the Empire
Church Lands
Lands of the House of Hohenzollern
Wittelsbach (Palatinate Branch)
Wittelsbach (Bavarian)
Wettin
Habsburg
Burgundy
Free Cantons of the Swiss Confederation
Allied
Imperial Free Cities
French Royal Domain 1461
Appanages
Other French Fiefs
A.B. Archbishopric
B. Bishopric
BUR. Burgraviate
C. County
D. Duchy
EL. Electorate
K. Kingdom
L. Landgraviate
M. Margraviate or Marquisate
PR. Principality
R. Republic
S. Seigneurie
V. Viscounty
NORTH SEA
English Channel
Bay of Biscay
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
K. OF ENGLAND
DUCHY OF BRITTANY
D. OF NORMANDY
D. OF BURGUNDY
D. OF AUVERGNE
D. OF BOURBON
D. OF BERRY
D. OF ORLEANS
D. OF GUYENNE
D. OF LORRAINE
D. OF GELDERLAND
D. OF LUXEMBURG
D. OF BRABANT
D. OF LIMBURG
D. OF JULICH
D. OF CLEVE
D. OF BERG
D. OF WESTPHALIA
D. OF SAXONY
D. OF BRUNSWICK
D. OF HOLSTEIN
D. OF SCHLESWIG
D. OF WURTEMBERG
D. OF SAVOY
D. OF MILAN
D. OF DAUPHINE
D. OF ANJOU
D. OF ALENCON
D. OF BLOIS
D. OF TOURAINE
D. OF NEVERS
D. OF LA MARCHE
D. OF ROUERGUE
D. OF ARMAGNAC
D. OF ALBRET
D. OF GUELDERLAND
C. OF FLANDERS
C. OF ARTOIS
C. OF HAINAULT
C. OF ZEELAND
C. OF FRIESLAND
C. OF OLDENBURG
C. OF LEER
C. OF BENTHEIM
C. OF TECKLENBURG
C. OF LIPPE
C. OF MARK
C. OF NASSAU
C. OF SPONHEIM
C. OF ISENBURG
C. OF HESSE
C. OF PALATINATE
C. OF ARMAGNAC
C. OF FOIX
C. OF ANGOULEME
C. OF PERCHE
C. OF MAYENNE
C. OF LAVAL
C. OF GUISE
C. OF VENDOME
C. OF CHATEAUDUN
C. OF SENS
C. OF CHATEAUROUX
C. OF LECTOURE
C. OF ROUSSILLON
C. OF CERDAGNE
C. OF PROVENCE
V. OF LIMOGES
V. OF CHARTRES
V. OF TONGE
V. OF CHATELLERAULT
V. OF BEARN
V. OF AUXERRE
V. OF MACON
V. OF BESANCON
V. OF CONSTANCE
V. OF ZURICH
V. OF LAUSANNE
V. OF AOSTA
V. OF MONTFERRAT
V. OF GENOA
V. OF PAVIA
V. OF MILAN
V. OF COMO
V. OF BERGAMO
V. OF CREMONA
V. OF PARMA
V. OF MODENA
V. OF FERRARA
V. OF MANTUA
V. OF VERONA
V. OF TRENTO
V. OF BRIXEN
V. OF FRIULI
V. OF TRIESTE
V. OF GORIZIA
V. OF CARNIOLA
V. OF CARINTHIA
V. OF STYRIA
V. OF AUSTRIA
V. OF TYROL
V. OF SWABIA
V. OF ALSACE
V. OF BASEL
V. OF LUCERNE
V. OF ZUG
V. OF SCHWYZ
V. OF GLARUS
V. OF APPENZELL
V. OF ST. GALLEN
V. OF THURGAU
V. OF SCHAFFHAUSEN
V. OF ZURICH
V. OF BERNE
V. OF FRIBOURG
V. OF SOLEURE
V. OF BASEL
V. OF VALAIS
V. OF GRISONS
V. OF BELLINZONA
V. OF CHIAVENNA
V. OF ADDA
V. OF BRESCIA
V. OF BERGAMO
V. OF COMO
V. OF MILAN
V. OF PAVIA
V. OF VERCELLI
V. OF NOVARA
V. OF IVREA
V. OF BIELLA
V. OF CASALE
V. OF ALESSANDRIA
V. OF TORTONA
V. OF PARMA
V. OF PIACENZ

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10 East from D Greenwich 12
THE ALPINE BARRIER AND THE NEIGHBOURING BATTLEFIELDS
Scale 1:5,000,000 (80 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100
Principal Roads through the Alps
Principal Battlefields & Sieges
Highlands over 3,000 Ft.
" from 1,200-3,000 "
Uplands " 600-1,200 "
Lowlands " 0-600 "
GROWTH OF THE SWISS CONFEDERATION
Scale 1:2,000,000 (32 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 10 20 30
The original Cantons 1315.
The "Everlasting League" in 1353
The Confederation in 1513.
Allied States to 1798
Subject States " "
GERMANY
Lake of Constance
THURGAU
ZURICH
BASLE
BISHOPRIC OF BASLE
SOLOTHURN
LUCERNE
SCHWYZ
GLARUS
APPENZELL
SARGANS
UNTERWALDEN
FRIBOURG
BERNE
NEUCHATEL
VAUD
CHABLAIS
VALAIS
SAVOY
GRAUER BUND
GRISONS
RHÆTIAN LEAGUES
LEAGUE OF GOD'S HOUSE
LEAGUE OF CHIAVENNA
TICINO
VALTELLINA
Adda 1512-1797
ADRIATIC SEA
Gulf of Venice
Istria
Lake Maggiore
Lake of Lugano
Lake of Como
Mt. Rosa
Mt. Blanc 15,780
Mte Rosa 15,217
Mt. Cenis P.
Mt. Pelvoux 13,460
Mte Viso 12,615
Ortler 12,810
Bernina 13,300
Gr. Glockner 12,466
Dachstein
Hohe Tauern
Carnic Alps
Julian Alps
Triglav
Maritime Alps
Cottian Alps
Graian Alps
Pennine Alps
Lepontine Alps
Rhætian Alps
Noric Alps
Styrian Alps
Carniola
Karawanken
Tyrol
Venetian Alps
Lombard Alps
Jura
Prague
Vienna
Munich
Frankfurt
Nuremberg
Mannheim
Strassburg
Stuttgart
Augsburg
Innsbruck
Salzburg
Linz
Passau
Ratisbon
Milan
Turin
Geneva
Lyons
Marseilles
Nice
Arles
Avignon
Verdun
Metz
Nancy
Dijon
Besançon
Belfort
Colmar
Basel
Zurich
Lucerne
Berne
Thun
Lausanne
Neuchatel
Fribourg
Sion
Martigny
Aosta
Ivrea
Novara
Pavia
Como
Bergamo
Brescia
Verona
Mantua
Padua
Venice
Trieste
Udine
Treviso
Milan
Turin
Genoa
Bologna
Ravenna
Ferrara
Modena
Parma
Piacenza
Alessandria
Casale
Vercelli
Magenta
Lodi
Cremona
Lecco
Chiavenna
Bellinzona
Locarno
Lugano
Como
Milan
Monza
Lodi
Pavia
Alessandria
Asti
Cuneo
Mondovi
Ventimiglia
Nice
Marseilles
Toulon
Arles
Avignon
Orange
Grenoble
Chambery
Aix
Geneva
Lyons
Dijon
Besançon
Belfort
Colmar
Strassburg
Metz
Nancy
Verdun
Toul
Epinal
Luxemburg
Treves
Coblenz
Frankfurt
Mainz
Darmstadt
Heidelberg
Mannheim
Nuremberg
Amberg
Ratisbon
Passau
Linz
Vienna
Prague
Pilsen
Eger
Bamberg
Würzburg
Augsburg
Ulm
Munich
Innsbruck
Salzburg
Villach
Klagenfurt
Laibach
Trieste
Udine
Treviso
Padua
Verona
Vicenza
Brescia
Bergamo
Como
Milan
Turin
Genoa
Bologna
Ravenna
Ferrara
Modena
Parma
Piacenza
Alessandria
Casale
Vercelli
Novara
Pavia
Lodi
Cremona
Mantua
Legnago
Adige
Chioggia
Venice
Gulf of Venice
Istria
ADRIATIC SEA
Lake of Constance
Lake of Zurich
Lake of Lucerne
Lake of Neuchatel
Lake of Geneva
Lake of Como
Lake of Lugano
Lake Maggiore
Rhine
Rhone
Inn
Adige
Po
Ticino
Adda
Oglio
Mincio
Brenta
Piave
Tagliamento
Isonzo
Save
Drave
Danube
Main
Neckar
Aar
Reuss
Limmat
Thur
Aare
Saône
Doubs
Meuse
Moselle
Sarre
Lech
Isar
Traun
Enns
Mur
Drave
Save
Isonzo
Tagliamento
Piave
Brenta
Adige
Oglio
Mincio
Adda
Ticino
Rhine
Rhone
Inn

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a.
ITALY
DURING THE RENASCENCE
in the XV and Early XVI Centuries
Scale 1:5,000,000 (80 miles=1 inch)
English Miles
0 20 40 60 80
Boundaries are given as in 1454
Papal States (parts of) actively controlled in (lt tint) in Blue
Smaller independent States in dark green.
b.
ITALY
in the XVII & XVIII Centuries
Scale 1:10,000,000 (160 miles=1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100
c.
ITALY
in the XIX Century
Scale 1:10,000,000 (160 miles=1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100
The Dates are those of the recognition by the various provinces of the King of Sardinia
Quadrilateral Fortresses are underlined in black.
d.
GROWTH OF
VENICE
Scale 1:5,000,000
Venetian Lands before 1400
Acquisitions 1400-6
1411-22
1423-30
1430-54
1454-1500
e.
GROWTH OF
FLORENCE
Scale 1:5,000,000
Florentine Lands in 1300
Acquisitions 1300-1377
1377-1433
1433-1494
Protected States
REPUBLIC OF VENICE
REPUBLIC OF GENOA
DUCHY OF MILAN
REPUBLIC OF LUCCA
REPUBLIC OF SIENA
STATES OF THE CHURCH
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
VENETIA 1860
PAPAL STATES
G.DY OF TUSCANY
DUCHY OF MODENA
DUCHY OF PARMA
CORSICA (to Genoa) 1367
CORSICA (to France)
SARDINIA
SICILY
TYRRHENIAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
IONIAN SEA
LIGURIAN SEA
Lausanne
Geneva
Rhône
VALAIS
SAVOY
Aosta
Turin
Susa
Dora Baltea
Biella
Novara
Ivrea
Milan
Como
Monza
Bergamo
Brescia
Verona
Vicenza
Padua
Venice
Trento
Bolzano
Belluno
Udine
Gradisca
Trieste
ISTRIA
(to Venice)
Fiume
Zara
DALMATIA
Spalato
Ragusa
Cattaro
Ancona
Pesaro
Rimini
Ravenna
Bologna
Modena
Parma
Piacenza
Alessandria
Asti
Casale
Pavia
Lodi
Cremona
Mantua
Ferrara
Este
Padua
Chioggia
Brondolo
Parenzo
Rovigno
Pola
Fiume
Lucca
Pisa
Florence
Siena
Arezzo
Perugia
Orvieto
Viterbo
Civita Vecchia
Rome
Ostia
Tivoli
Terracina
Gaeta
Capua
Naples
Salerno
Amalfi
Sorrento
Foggia
Manfredonia
Barletta
Trani
Bari
Monopoli
Otranto
Taranto
Brindisi
Gulf of Taranto
Reggio
Messina
Palermo
Milazzo
Trapani
Marsala
Cagliari
Sassari
Alghero
Bonifacio
Ajaccio
Nice
Monaco
Marseilles
PROVENCE
DAUPHINE
SAVOY
PIEDMONT
LIGURIA
Elba
Piombino
Orbitello
PRESIDII
Corsica (Genoa) from 1768
Sardinia (Spanish) till 1714
(Austria) 1714-20
Sicily (to Piedmont 1714-20)
Sicily 1860
Capraera I.
Ischia
Naples
Gaeta
Benevento
Bitonto
Cattaro
Lissa
Chieti
Pescara
Teramo
Aquila
Rieti
Viterbo
Orvieto
Spoleto
Foligno
Assisi
Perugia
Cortona
Arezzo
Siena
Volterra
Pisa
Livorno
Lucca
Prato
Pistoia
Florence
Fiesole
Vallombrosa
Urbino
Pesaro
Fano
Senigaglia
Ancona
Fossombrone
Loreto
Recanati
Macerata
Fermo
Ascoli
Civitella
Aquila
Sulmona
Isernia
Campobasso

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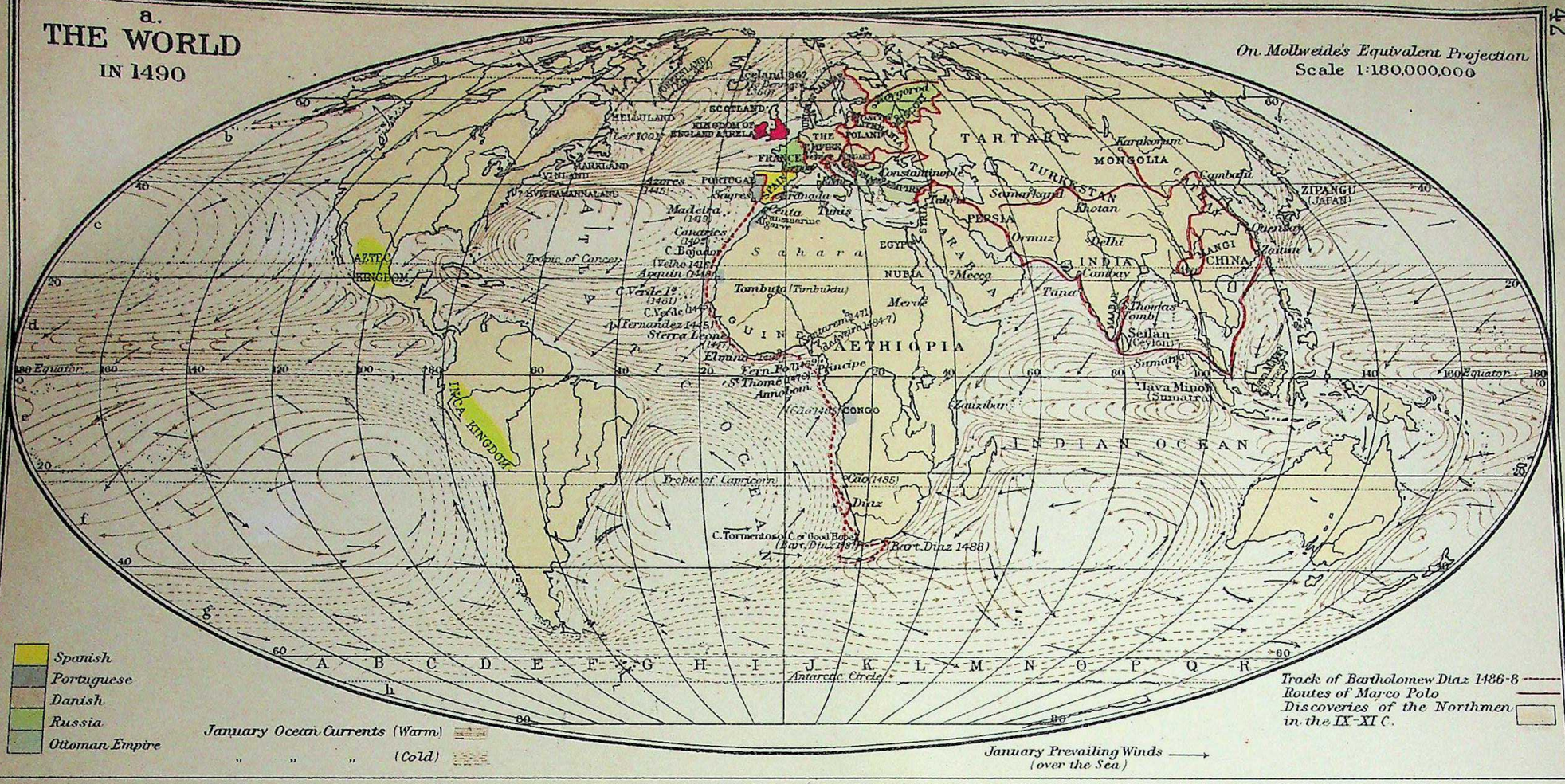
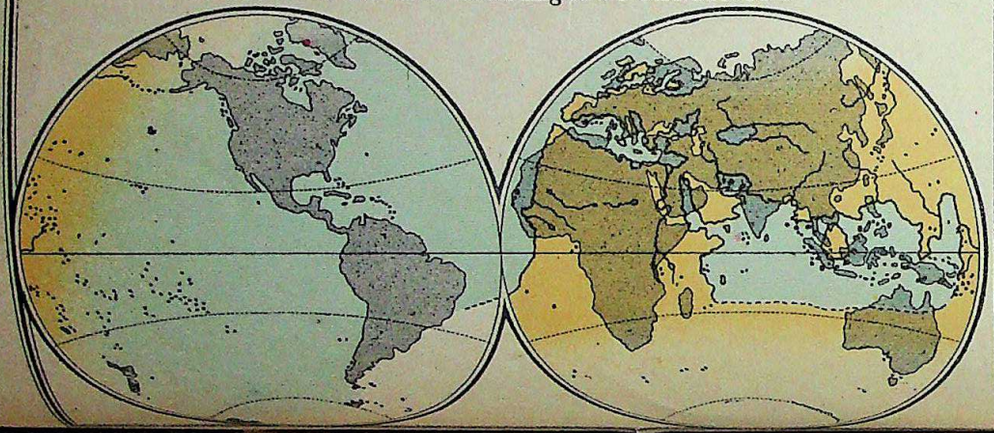
a. THE WORLD IN 1490

On Mollweide's Equivalent Projection
Scale 1:180,000,000



b. THE WORLD according to PTOLEMY: 150



c. THE WORLD according to EDRISI: 1154

d. THE WORLD according to FRA MAURO: 1459

a. THE WORLD at the TREATY OF SARAGOSSA 1529

On Mollweide's Equivalent Projection
Scale 1:180,000,000

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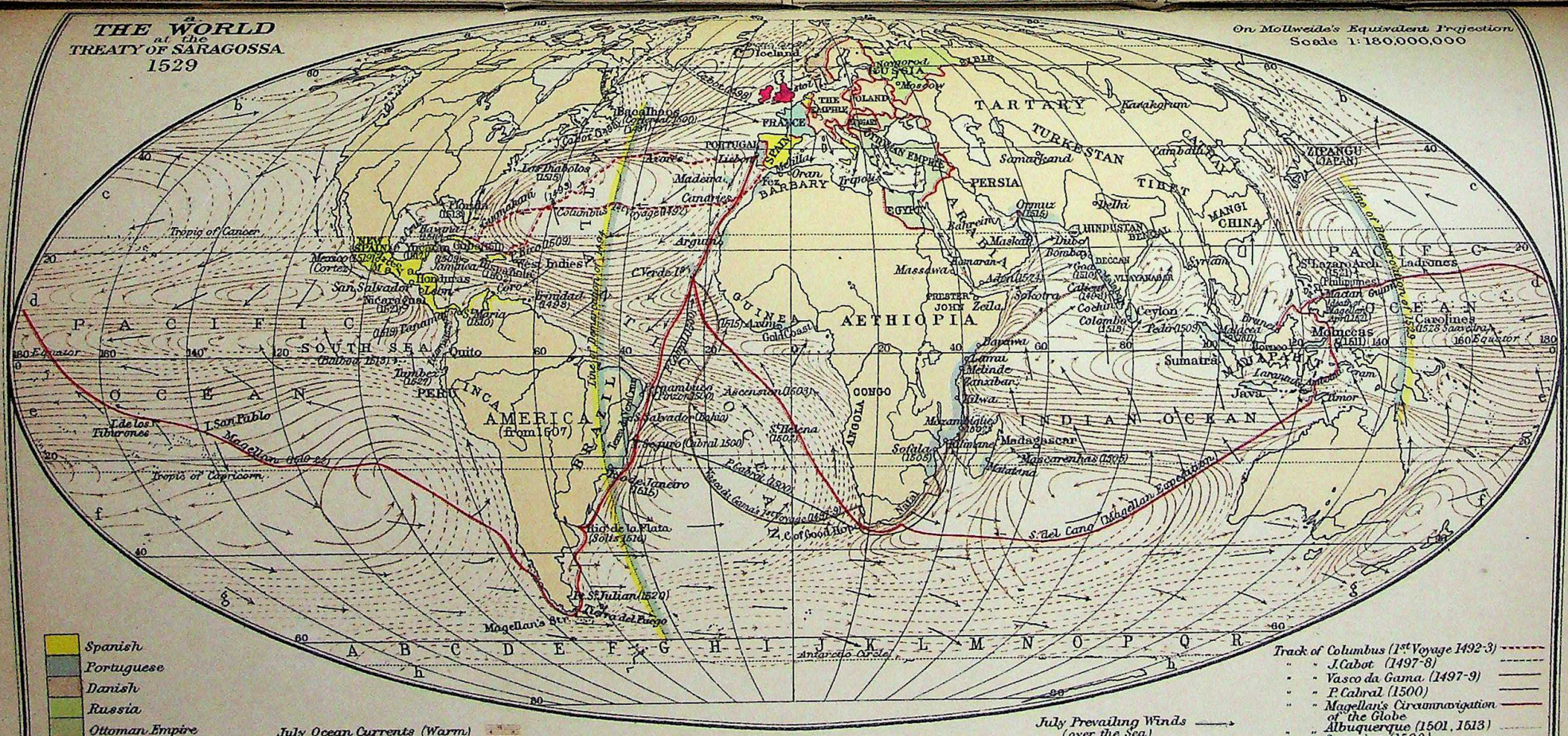

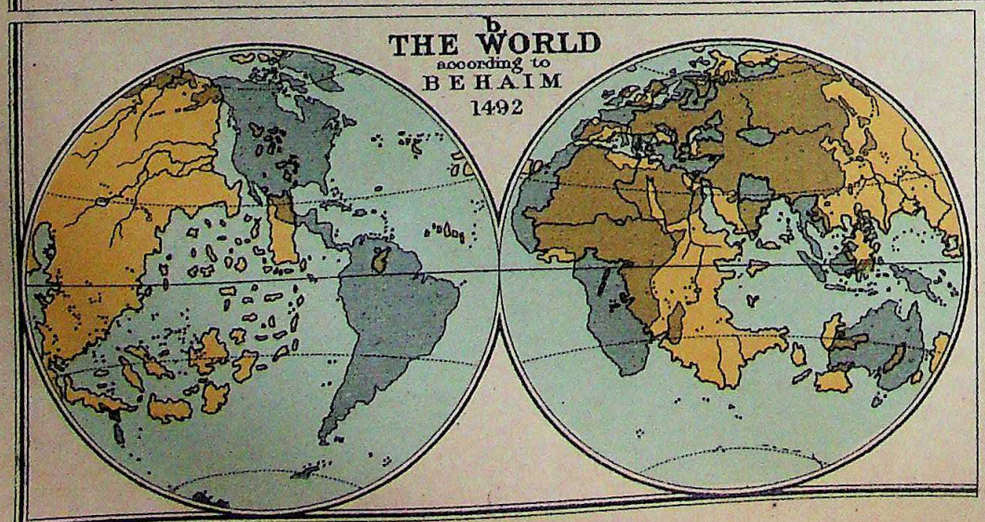

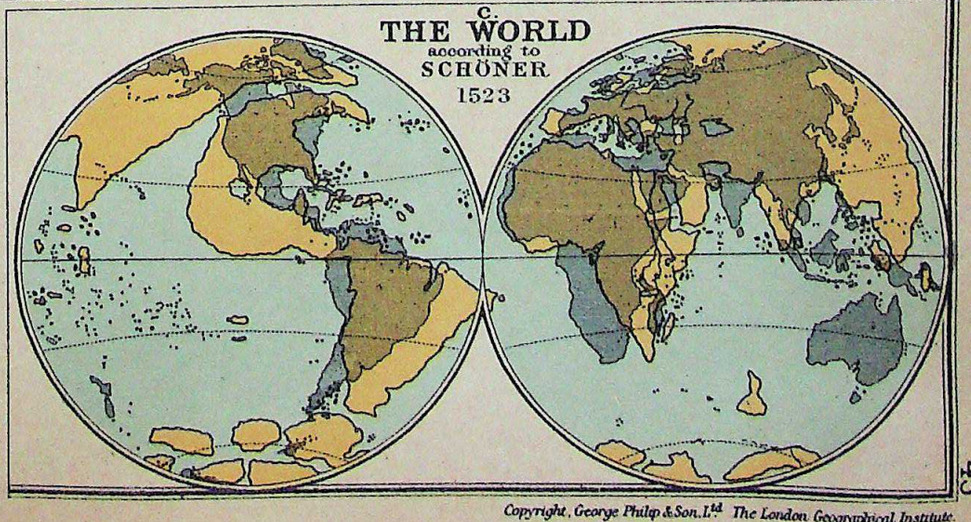

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SCOTLAND
in the
16th & 17th CENTURIES
showing the principal
CLANS & FAMILIES
Scale 1:3000000 (50 miles-1 inch)
English Miles
0 10 20 30 40
Graham Clans which joined Montrose
Campbell Clans which actively opposed him
"The Highland Line" (the division between Highlands & Lowlands)
Scottish Shires c.1600
1 Aberdeen
2 Argyll & Tarbert
3 Ayr
4 Banff
5 Berwick
6 Bute
7 Clackmannan
8 Cromarty
9 Dumbarton
10 Dumfries
11 Elgin & Forres
12 Fife
13 Forfar
14 Inverness
15 Kincardine
16 Kirkcudbright
17 Lanark
18 Linlithgow
19 Lothian
20 Nairn
21 Orkney
22 Peebles
23 Perth
24 Renfrew
25 Roxburgh
26 Selkirk
27 Stirling
28 Wigtown
ORKNEY ISLANDS
Pentland Firth
Hebrides
North Channel
IRELAND
ENGLAND
Solway Firth
Firth of Clyde
Firth of Tay
Firth of Forth
Firth of Lorne
Moray Firth
Dornoch Firth
L. Broom
Skye
Mull
Coll
Tyree
Harris
Lewis
Mackay
Sinclair
Murray
Mackenzie
Macleod
Macdonald
Campbell
Maclean
Grant
Frazer
Gordon
Forbes
Lindsay
Douglas
Kennedy
Stewart
Elliott
Armstrong
Maxwell
Johnstone
Inverness
Dunrobin
Dornoch
Elgin
Forres
Nairn
Tarbert
Peterhead
Aberdeen
Dunnottar
Mid Aleton
Brechin
Arbroath
Dundee
Perth
St Andrews
Bass Rock
Dunbar
Berwick
Lauder
Jedburgh
Kelso
Melrose
Floddon Field
Hawick
Dumfries
Carlisle
Solway Moss
Whithorn
Wigtown
Kirkcudbright
Ayr
Arran
Bute
Glasgow
Paisley
Dumbarton
Stirling
Linlithgow
Edinburgh
Leith
Haddington
Dunbar
Tyninghame
Coldingham
Ayton
Berwick
Home
MARCH
MIDDLE MARCH
WEST MARCH
EAST LOTHIAN
Hamilton
Douglas
Crawford
Lanark
Renfrew
Largs
Dalry
Strathaven
Carrick
Galloway
Kirkcudbright
Wigtown
Whithorn
Solway Moss
Carlisle
Kirkcudbright
Kinross
Perth
Dundee
Arbroath
Montrose
Aberdeen
Peterhead
Fraserburgh
Banff
Elgin
Forres
Inverness
Fort Augustus
Fort William
Mallaig
Oban
Campbeltown
Tarbert
Islay
Jura
Colonsay
Mull
Coll
Tyree
Skye
Harris
Lewis
Macleod
Macdonald
Macleod of Dunvegan
Macdonald of Sleat
Macdonald of Glengarry
Macdonald of Keppoch
Macdonald of Clanranald
Macdonald of Lochaber
Macdonald of Glencoe
Macdonald of Kintyre
Macdonald of Islay
Macdonald of Jura
Macdonald of Colonsay
Macdonald of Ardnamurchan
Macdonald of Morar
Macdonald of Glengarry
Macdonald of Keppoch
Macdonald of Clanranald
Macdonald of Lochaber
Macdonald of Glencoe
Macdonald of Kintyre
Macdonald of Islay
Macdonald of Jura
Macdonald of Colonsay
Macdonald of Ardnamurchan
Macdonald of Morar
Macdonald of Sleat
Macdonald of Dunvegan
Macleod
Macleod of Lewis
Macleod of Harris
Macleod of Skye
Macleod of Dunvegan
Macleod of Coll
Macleod of Tyree
Macleod of Mull
Macleod of Colonsay
Macleod of Islay
Macleod of Jura
Macleod of Kintyre
Macleod of Ardnamurchan
Macleod of Morar
Macleod of Sleat

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WESTERN & CENTRAL EUROPE
during
THE WARS OF RELIGION 1555-1648
Scale 1: 6,000,000 (100 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100 150 200
Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire 1555
Modifications " " " " 1648
The boundaries of the German States are given for 1618
Boundaries of the Electoral States within the Empire 1618
Church Lands
Lands of the House of Hohenzollern (Brandenburg branch)
" " " " " Wittelsbach (Palatinate ")
" " " " " " (Bavarian ")
" " " " " Wettin (Albertine ")
" " " " " " (Ernestine ")
" " " " " Habsburg (Austrian ")
" " " " " " (Spanish ")
Free Cantons of the Swiss Confederation
Allied " " " "
Imperial Free Cities
March of Gustavus Adolphus
French Royal Domain 1589
Acquisitions of Henry IV. 1589-1610
Boundaries of the Gouvernements 1610
" " " Provinces "
Chief recognised Huguenot centres (Places de Sûreté 1598-1622)
A.B. Archbishopric
B. Bishopric
C. County
D. Duchy
El. Electorate
K. Kingdom
L. Landgraviate
M. Margraviate
PR. Principality
R. Republic
FG. Fürstenberg
NG. Neuburg
SG. Schwarzburg
SH. Sulzbach
ZN. Zweibrücken
NORTH SEA
English Channel
Bay of Biscay
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
UNITED PROVINCES
REP. OF FRIESLAND
SPANISH NETHERLANDS
FRANCE
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
SWISS CONFEDERATION
K. OF SPAIN
NORMANDY
BRITTANY
PICARDY
CHAMPAGNE
ANJOU
ORLEANAIS
BERRY
POITOU
GUYENNE
GASCONY
BEARN
DAUPHINÉ
PROVENCE
LYONNAIS
AUVERGNE
BURGUNDY
FRANCHE COMTÉ
LORRAINE
ARAGON
CATALONIA
ROUSSILLON
ANDORRA
NAVARRE
D. OF SAVOY
MILAN
K. OF NAPLES
CORSICA (to Genoa)
Le Havre (Havre de Grâce)
Channel Is.
Belle Isle
Ile de Ré
Ile d'Oléron
Ile d'Yeu
Dover
Calais
Boulogne
Dunkirk
Ostend
Brussels
Antwerp
Amsterdam
Rotterdam
Hague
Haarlem
Leyden
Utrecht
Arnhem
Nimeguen
Cologne
Aachen
Liège
Namur
Luxemburg
Metz
Toul
Verdun
Strasburg
Basle
Geneva
Lausanne
Berne
Zurich
Lucerne
Milan
Turin
Genoa
Nice
Marseilles
Toulon
Montpellier
Toulouse
Bordeaux
Nantes
Rouen
Paris
Orleans
Lyons
Dijon
Besançon
Grenoble
Avignon
Perpignan
Barcelona
Saragossa
Madrid
Pamplona
Bayonne
Rochelle
Brest
St. Malo
Cherbourg
Caen
Le Mans
Tours
Poitiers
Limoges
Clermont
Montpellier
Aigues Mortes
Arles
Aix
Toulon
Fréjus
Antibes
Ventimiglia
Oneglia
Savona
Turin
Milan
Parma
Modena
Bologna
Ferrara
Venice
Padua
Verona
Mantua
Trent
Innsbruck
Munich
Augsburg
Ulm
Stuttgart
Heidelberg
Mannheim
Frankfort
Mainz
Worms
Spires
Trier
Coblenz
Bonn
Cologne
Düsseldorf
Münster
Osnabrück
Minden
Paderborn
Hanover
Brunswick
Magdeburg
Leipzig
Dresden
Prague
Nuremberg
Ratisbon
Passau
Vienna
Linz
Salzburg
Graz
Klagenfurt
Laibach
Trieste
Fiume
Zara
Ragusa
Cattaro
Scutari
Durazzo
Corfu
Zante
Cephalonia
Ithaca
Patras
Lepanto
Corinth
Athens
Thebes
Salonica
Constantinople
Adrianople
Gallipoli
Smyrna
Rhodes
Candia
Cyprus
Alexandria
Cairo
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Oran
Gibraltar
Malaga
Granada
Seville
Cadiz
Lisbon
Oporto
Coimbra
Evora
Badajoz
Valladolid
Burgos
Saragossa
Huesca
Jaca
Logrono
Vitoria
Bilbao
San Sebastian
Irun
Roncesvalles
Tarbes
Pau
Orthez
Dax
Bayonne
Biarritz
Agen
Montauban
Albi
Castres
Carcassonne
Narbonne
Perpignan
Nîmes
Arles
Avignon
Orange
Carpentras
Apt
Digne
Barcelonnette
Pignerol
Susa
Casale
Alessandria
Asti
Alba
Cherasco
Mondovi
Ceva
Cuneo
Coni
Pinerolo
Vercelli
Novara
Como
Lecco
Bergamo
Brescia
Cremona
Lodi
Pavia
Piacenza
Parma
Reggio
Modena
Mirandola
Carpi
Ferrara
Rovigo
Padua
Vicenza
Verona
Mantua
Trent
Bolzano

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THE WORLD 1588-1650

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English Settlements c.1688
French " " "
English Territory claimed but not effectively settled
French " " "
RUPERT'S LAND
(Hudson Bay Co.)
1670
NEWFOUNDLAND
CANADA
NOVA SCOTIA
NEW ENGLAND
HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
RHODE ISLAND
CONNECTICUT
NEW HAVEN
NEW NETHERLAND
NEW SWEDEN
VIRGINIA
MARYLAND
PENNSYLVANIA
CAROLINA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
St. Lawrence
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Hudson Bay
Delaware Bay
Chesapeake B.
Albemarle Sd.
Pamlico Sd.
Ohio
Mississippi
Susquehanna
Delaware
Potomac
Roanoke
Iroquois
Hurons
Algonquins
Shawnees
Delawares
Cherokees
Senecas
Mohawks
Onondagas
Oneidas
Tuscaroras
Powhatans
Monacans
Micmacs
Ottawas
Illinois
Miamis
Sioux
Chickasaws
Creeks
Yamasees
Catawbas
Westos
Apalachees
Timucuas
Guale
Calusas
Tequesta
Jamestown 1607
Plymouth 1620
Boston 1630
Salem 1628
Dorchester 1630
Roxbury 1630
Watertown 1630
Cambridge 1630
Concord 1635
Hartford 1635
Windsor 1633
Wethersfield 1634
Springfield 1636
Northampton 1654
Saybrook 1635
New Haven 1638
Milford 1639
Guilford 1639
Stamford 1640
Fairfield 1639
Stratford 1639
Norwalk 1651
Southold 1640
Southampton 1640
Easthampton 1648
Gravesend 1645
Flushing 1645
Breukelen 1646
Amesbury 1654
Newbury 1635
Ipswich 1634
Gloucester 1642
Dover 1623
Exeter 1638
Hampton 1638
Portsmouth 1623
Kittery 1623
York 1624
Saco 1631
Scarborough 1658
Falmouth 1658
Casco 1632
Pemaquid 1625
Sagadahoc 1607
Arrowsic 1626
Monhegan 1626
Damariscotta 1625
Sheepscot 1662
Kennebec 1628
Merrymeeting Bay
Androscoggin
Penobscot B.
Passamaquoddy B.
Fundy B.
Minas Basin
Annapolis Basin
Port Royal 1605
Acadia 1604
Baie des Chaleurs
Gaspé
Anticosti 1535
Magdalen Is.
Ile de St. Jean (Prince Edward I.)
Ile Royale (Cape Breton I.)
Miramichi B.
Chaleur B.
Cabot Str.
Belle Isle Str.
Labrador
Quebec 1608
Montreal 1642
Three Rivers 1634
Trois Rivières
Lachine
Sault St. Louis
Sault St. Marie
Mackinaw
Detroit 1701
Niagara Falls
Lake Champlain 1615
Lake George
Lake Nipissing
Georgian B.
Manitoulin I.
Michilimackinac
Green Bay
Chicago
Kaskaskia
Cahokia
Fort Duquesne
Fort Frontenac 1673
Fort Niagara 1679
Fort Miami 1680
Fort St. Joseph
Fort Crèvecoeur 1680
Fort Chartres 1720
Fort Orange 1623
Fort Nassau 1614
Fort Amsterdam 1625
Fort Casimir 1651
Fort Christina 1638
Fort Elfsborg
Fort St. Louis
Fort Caroline 1564
Fort Royal
Port Royal 1670
Albany
Schenectady
Manhattan I.
Staten I.
Long Island
Nantucket
Martha's Vineyard
Block I.
Narragansett B.
Cape Cod
Cape Ann
Cape Sable
Sable I.
Bermuda
Bahama Is.
Florida
Jamestown
Williamsburg
Yorktown
Charles City
Henrico
Bermuda Hundred
Charles City
Brenton 1607
Jamestown 1607
Old Point Comfort
Hampton
C. Henry
Newport News
Elizabeth City
Kecoughtan
Roanoke
Roanoke I.
Albemarle Sd.
Pamlico Sd.
Raleigh's Colony 1587
Virginia Colony 1587
Roanoke
Croatoan
Hatteras
C. Hatteras
C. Lookout
C. Fear
C. Charles
Charles Town 1663
English Settlement 1670
Port Royal
Beaufort
Savannah
Georgia
Florida
Spanish Missions
Spanish Territory
Spanish Settlements
Spanish Fort
Spanish Mission
Spanish Mission Ruins
Spanish Mission Indians
Spanish Mission Indians
Spanish Mission Indians

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ENGLAND during the CIVIL WAR a.

Scale 1:4,000,000 (64 miles-1 inch)
English Miles
0 25 50 75

- Districts controlled by the King throughout the campaign of 1643.
- Districts controlled by Parliament throughout the campaign of 1643.
- Districts conquered by the King during the campaign of 1643.
- Districts conquered by Parliament during the campaign of 1643.

ENGLAND during the CIVIL WAR b.

Scale 1:4,000,000 (64 miles-1 inch)
English Miles.
0 25 50 75

- Districts controlled by Parliament at the beginning of 1645.
- Districts controlled by the King at the end of 1645.
- Districts conquered by Parliament during 1645.

SCOTLAND
NORTH SEA
IRISH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Bristol Channel
Cardigan Bay
EASTERN ASSOCIATION
Isle of Man
Firth of Forth
Solway Firth
The Wash

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EUROPE after the

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Austrian Dominions
Spanish Dominions
Dominions of the Hohenzollerns (Brandenburg-Prussia)
Swedish Dominions
Church Lands
Boundary of the Empire
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
RUSSIA
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
Skager Rak
Kattegat
SCHLESWIG
HOLSTEIN
DENMARK
Copenhagen
Christiania
Stockholm
Riga
Moscow
Warsaw
POLAND
LITHUANIA
PRUSSIA
BRANDENBURG
SAXONY
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
SILESIA
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
BAVARIA
Vienna
Berlin
Amsterdam
Brussels
Paris
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
SAVOY
PIEDMONT
REP. OF VENICE
PAPAL STATES
TUSCANY
GENOA
MODENA
PROVENCE
DAUPHINE
CORSICA
(to Genoa)
SARDINIA
KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES
SICILY
Naples
Rome
Palermo
Messina
Reggio
TYRRHENIAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
Venice
Trieste
Ancona
Florence
Milan
Turin
Genoa
Marseilles
Avignon
Toulon
Lyons
Besançon
Metz
Verdun
Reims
Dunkirk
Ostend
Antwerp
Ghent
Liege
Namur
Luxemburg
Strasburg
Augsburg
Munich
Ratisbon
Ulm
Danube
Innspruck
Basle
Zürich
Berne
Geneva
Constance
Coblentz
Frankfort
Hanover
Brunswick
Magdeburg
Leipzig
Dresden
Breslau
Posen
Thorn
Danzig
Königsberg
Memel
Pillau
Elbing
Marienburg
Stettin
Rügen
Lübeck
Hamburg
Bremen
Oldenburg
Emden
Münster
Cologne
Aix-la-Chapelle
Maestricht
Utrecht
Amsterdam
Rotterdam
Ryswick
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Abbeville
Rouen
Paris
Orleans
Nantes
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Montpellier
Marseilles
Aix
Arles
Nismes
Lyons
Besançon
Dijon
Troyes
Metz
Verdun
Thionville
Sedan
Rheims
Soissons
Amiens
Arras
Lille
Ypres
Ostend
Brussels
Ghent
Antwerp
Bergen
Mons
Namur
Liege
Aix-la-Chapelle
Cologne
Coblentz
Mayence
Worms
Spires
Heidelberg
Manheim
Philipsburg
Landau
Strasburg
Basle
Zürich
Berne
Geneva
Constance
Innspruck
Ulm
Augsburg
Munich
Ratisbon
Danube
Passau
Linz
Vienna
Presburg
Neuhäusel
Hungarian Ore Mts
Grand Budapest
Raab
Comorn
Gran
Vasvar
Mohacs
Zenta
Essek
Peterwardein
Carlowitz
Szelankemen
Belgrade
Passarowitz
Semendria
Nissa
Sophia
Timovo
Philippopolis
Uskub
Adrianople
Constantinople
Bosporus
Black Sea
Varna
Silistria
Ruschuk
Sistova
Danube
Wallachia
Bucharest
Transylvania
Schässburg
Hermanstadt
Transylvanian Alps
Turk Tributary 1391
Temesvar
Temesvar
Banat of
Hungary
Grosswardein
Klausenburg
Szathmar
Theiss
Tokay
Munkaczo
Kaschau
Carpathian Mts
Zips
Zuravno
Buczacz
Podolia
Kaminiec
Choczim
Dniester
Pruth
Jassy
Moldavia
(Turk. Trib. from 1456)
Bender
Odessa
Bessarabia
Jedisan
Kherson
Crimea
Kostok
(Expatriated)
Lemberg
Brody
Red Russia
Galicia
Ukraine
Volhynia
Little Poland
Lublin
Zamosc
Sandomir
Radom
Cracow
Olmütz
Briinn
Prague
Pultusk
Grodno
Nemen
Minsk
Pinsk
Pripet
Brest Litovsk
Black Russia
Podlesia
Vilna
Dwina
Polotsk
Witebsk
Smolensk
Kaluga
Moscow
Tver
Novgorod
Lake Ilmen
Pskof
Livonia
Dorpat
Errestfer
Peipus
Narva
Ingria
1617
Esthonia
1561
Reval
Gulf of Finland
Helsingfors
Abo
Aland
Gothland
Visby
Wisby
Calmar
Oland
Bromsebro
Kronoberg
Carlscrona
Halmstad
Gothenburg
Lidkoping
Linkoping
Soderkoping
Upsala
Stockholm
Dalecarlia
Upland
Vermland
Vestmanland
Nerike
Dal
Lake Wener
Lake Wetter
Ostergotland
Westergotland
Smaland
Scania
1658
Roeskilde
Elsinore
Helsingborg
Landskrona
Malmo
Carlscrona
Bornholm
Pillau (Sw. 1623)
Memel (Sw. 1629-35)
Libau
Mitau
Windau
Riga
Wolmar
Hummelhof
Gulf of Riga
Ceded by Poland 1660
Dagö
Osel
1645
Arensburg
Pernau
Reval
Kexholm
Ladoga
Lake Ladoga
Viborg
Kymenegerd
Nyenschantz
Storkyro
Wasa
Gulf of Bothnia
Helsingland
Medelpad
Herjedalen
1645
Jemtland
1645
Trondhjem
(Sw. 1658-60)
Bergen
Stavanger
Christiansand
Skager Rak
Kattegat
Sound
Elsinore
Helsingborg
Landskrona
Malmo
Carlscrona
Halmstad
Gothenburg
Lidkoping
Linkoping
Soderkoping
Upsala
Stockholm
Dalecarlia
Upland
Vermland
Vestmanland
Nerike
Dal
Lake Wener
Lake Wetter
Ostergotland
Westergotland
Smaland
Scania
1658
Roeskilde
Copenhagen

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a.

SCOTLAND since THE RESTORATION

Scale 1:3000000 (50 miles-1 inch)

English Miles

0 10 20 30 40

Route of the Young Pretender 1745-6

N.B. Most of the shire divisions as shown date back at least to the 14th century. The modern divisions were completed in the reign of James VI (James I of England) when Caithness, Sutherland, Cromarty and Ross were cut off from Inverness.

c.

THE CROMWELLIAN SETTLEMENT in IRELAND

1:8000000 (130 Miles)

ULSTER

CONNAUGHT

LEINSTER

MUNSTER

Land allotted to English soldiers and adventurers (including Connaught and Clare for four miles from the shore).

Land reserved for "innocent" native proprietors throughout Ireland.

GR. Government Reservations

b.

IRELAND SINCE THE XVII CENTURY

Scale 1:3,000,000 (50 miles-1 inch)

English Miles

0 10 20 30 40

Archbishoprics

Bishoprics

Older Tishoprics

Boundary between the Irish Free State and Northern Ireland (December 1925)

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a.

THE WORLD at the TREATIES OF UTRECHT

On Mollweide's Equivalent Projection

Scale 1:180,000,000

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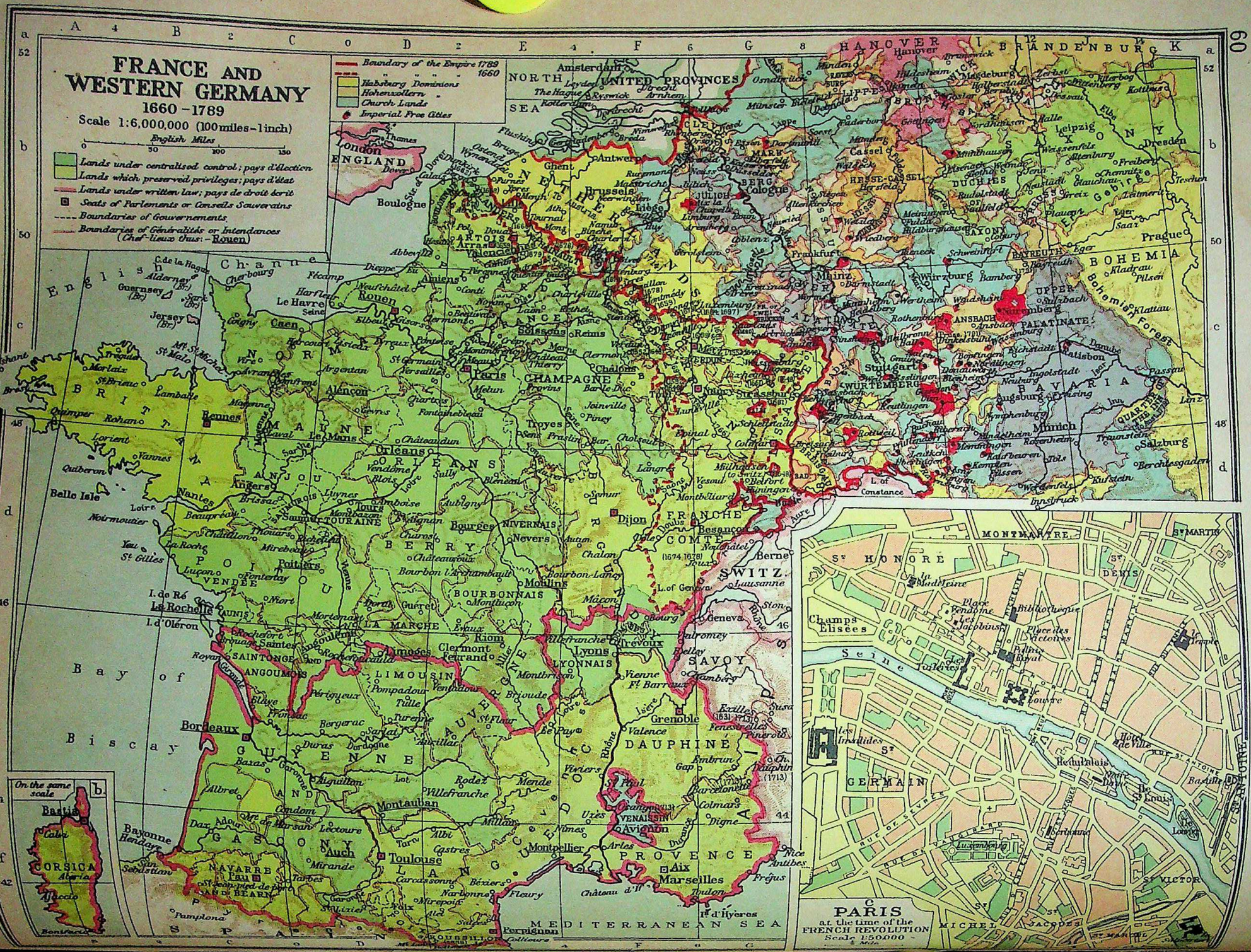
FRANCE AND WESTERN GERMANY
1660 – 1789
Scale 1:6,000,000 (100 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100 150
Lands under centralised control; pays d'élection
Lands which preserved privileges; pays d'état
Lands under written law; pays de droit écrit
Seats of Parliaments or Conseils Souverains
Boundaries of Gouvernements
Boundaries of Généralités or Intendances (Chef-lieux thus:- Rouen)
Boundary of the Empire 1789
" " " 1660
Habsburg Dominions
Hohenzollern "
Church Lands "
Imperial Free Cities
HANOVER
BRANDENBURG
NORTH SEA
UNITED PROVINCES
Amsterdam
The Hague
Rotterdam
Utrecht
Arnhem
Münster
Osnabrück
Minden
Hanover
Brunswick
Magdeburg
Halberstadt
Zerbst
Wittenberg
Cöthen
Leipzig
Dresden
SAXONY
Cassel
Marburg
Fulda
Eisenach
Gotha
Jena
Weimar
Erfurt
Naumburg
Halle
Merseburg
Freiberg
Chemnitz
Zwickau
Plauen
Greiz
Gera
Zeitz
Saar
Prague
BOHEMIA
Bohemian Forest
Pilsen
Klattau
Kladrau
Eger
Bayreuth
BAYREUTH
Würzburg
Bamberg
Mainz
Darmstadt
Frankfurt
Coburg
Meiningen
Hildburghausen
Schweinfurt
Aschaffenburg
Wertheim
Wadshusen
Nuremberg
Sulzbach
ANSBACH
PALATINATE
UPPER PALATINATE
Amberg
Ratisbon
Danube
Stuttgart
Ludwigsburg
Heilbronn
Hall
Rothenburg
Ulm
Ingolstadt
Neuburg
Augsburg
Freising
Munich
Passau
Salzburg
Berchtesgaden
Traunstein
Inn
Lintz
Innsbruck
Constance
L. of Constance
Bregenz
Feldkirch
Coblentz
Ehrenbreitstein
Treves
Luxemburg
Metz
Nancy
Strasbourg
Colmar
Schlettstadt
Basle
Mulhausen
Montbeliard
Besançon
Dijon
Langres
Vesoul
Epinal
Troyes
Paris
Versailles
Rheims
Soissons
Laon
Amiens
Abbeville
Arras
Valenciennes
Cambrai
Tournay
Ghent
Antwerp
Brussels
Liège
Namur
Mons
Charleroi
Maestricht
Ruremonde
Juliers
Cologne
Bonn
Aix la Chapelle
Limburg
Spa
Stavelot
Malmedy
Neuss
Crefeld
Wesel
Cleves
Arnhem
Nimeguen
Breda
Bergen op Zoom
Flushing
Bruges
Ostend
Nieuport
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Dover
Thames
London
ENGLAND
English Channel
Cherbourg
Caen
Le Havre
Rouen
Dieppe
Fécamp
Neufchâtel
Harfleur
Honfleur
Guernsey (Br.)
Jersey (Br.)
Alderney (Br.)
Sark (Br.)
Ushant
Brest
Morlaix
St Brieuc
St Malo
Mt St Michel
Avranches
Granville
Coutances
St Lô
Bayeux
Falaise
Argentan
Alençon
Mortagne
Nogent le Rotrou
Dreux
Evreux
Pontoise
Meaux
Melun
Fontainebleau
Montereau
Provins
Nogent
Bar sur Aube
Joinville
Chaumont
Langres
Vitry
Châlons
Rheims
Sedan
Mézières
Rocroi
Charleville
Hirson
Guise
Vervins
Laon
Soissons
Reims
Epernay
Sézanne
Nogent
Montmédy
Thionville
Longwy
Arlon
Virton
Neufchâteau
Bastogne
Diekirch
Luxemburg
Trèves
Sarrelouis
Saarbrücken
Zweibrücken
Deux Ponts
Landau
Germersheim
Spires
Worms
Oppenheim
Kreuznach
Simmern
Creutznach
Bingen
Ingelheim
Kaiserslautern
Homburg
Neustadt
Weissenburg
Hagenau
Wissembourg
Lauterburg
Rastadt
Baden
Durlach
Pforzheim
Offenburg
Kehl
Strasbourg
Schlettstadt
Colmar
Rheinfelden
Basle
Liestal
Delémont
Porrentruy
Soleure
Berne
Fribourg
Lausanne
Geneva
Sion
Martigny
Aosta
Ivrea
Turin
Susa
Pignerol
Fenestrelles
Exilles
Briançon
Embrun
Gap
Barcelonnette
Digne
Colmars
Puget Theniers
Nice
Antibes
Fréjus
Toulon
Marseilles
Aix
Arles
Avignon
Orange
Vaison
Montélimar
Valence
Grenoble
Vienne
Ft Barraux
Chambery
Modane
Lyons
Villefranche
Trevoux
Bourg
Mâcon
Tournus
Chalon
Autun
Nevers
Moulins
Bourbon-Lancy
Bourbon-l'Archambault
Montluçon
Gueret
Aubusson
Felletin
Boussac
Evaux
Riom
Clermont Ferrand
Thiers
Issoire
Brioude
Pont du Château
Limoges
Rochechouart
Angoulême
Cognac
Saintes
Rochefort
Tonnay Charente
Pons
Royan
La Rochelle
Les Sables d'Olonne
Luçon
Fontenay
Mortagne
Poitiers
Châtellerault
Loudun
Thouars
Parthenay
Niort
Saumur
Tours
Amboise
Chinon
Loches
Blois
Vendôme
Orléans
Montargis
Gien
Sancerre
Aubigny
Bourges
Issoudun
Châteauroux
Argenton
Le Blanc
La Châtre
Sancoins
Nantes
Ancenis
Clisson
Machecoul
Belle Isle
Quiberon
Vannes
Lorient
Quimper
Rohan
Pontivy
Lambale
Rennes
Fougères
Vitré
Laval
Le Mans
Mayenne
Château-du-Loir
Sablé
Baugé
Beaupréau
Noirmoutier
Yeu
St Gilles
Sables d'Olonne
I. de Ré
I. d'Oléron
Marennes
Rochefort
Saintonge
Angoumois
Périgueux
Nontron
Excideuil
Terrasson
Brive
Tulle
Ventadour
Pompadour
Uzerche
Turenne
Bergerac
Sarlat
Duras
Dordogne
Libourne
Bordeaux
Blaye
Fronsac
Cadillac
Langon
Bazas
Auch
Condom
Lectoure
Mirande
Lombez
Albret
Agen
Marmande
Tonneins
Aiguillon
Lot
Rodez
Villefranche
Millau
Albi
Castres
Montauban
Toulouse
Carcassonne
Narbonne
Béziers
Pézenas
Agde
Montpellier
Uzès
Nîmes
Le Puy
Viviers
Privas
Tournon
Annonay
Vienne
Lyonnais
Forez
Roanne
Montbrison
Thiers
Clermont
Riom
Gannat
Montluçon
Bourbonnais
Nivernais
Auxerre
Sens
Joigny
Montereau
Melun
Provins
Nogent
Bar sur Aube
Chaumont
Langres
Vesoul
Gray
Dole
Salins
Arbois
Poligny
Lons le Saunier
Orgelet
Nozeroy
Pontarlier
Jougne
Orbe
Yverdon
Neufchâtel
Valangin
Morat
Fribourg
Romont
Bulle
Vevey
Aigle
Sion
Martigny
St Maurice
Bex
Evian
Thonon
Annecy
Rumilly
Chambery
St Jean de Maurienne
Modane

EUROPE
IN 1740
Scale 1:15,000,000 (240 miles-1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300
Boundary of the Empire
Dominions of the House of Bourbon
Austrian Dominions
Brandenburg Prussia
Church Lands
PARIS
at the time of the FRENCH REVOLUTION
Scale 1:50,000
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
BLACK SEA
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
ENGLAND
WALES
DENMARK
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
RUSSIA
POLAND
PRUSSIA
HANOVER
SAXONY
BOHEMIA
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
SWITZERLAND
ITALY
TURKEY
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
KURLAND
LIVONIA
LITHUANIA
VOLHYNIA
PODOLIA
GALICIA
MOLDAVIA
WALLACHIA
BOSNIA
SERVIA
BULGARIA
TRANSYLVANIA
BAVARIA
TYROL
CARNIOLA
DALMATIA
BANAT OF TEMESVAR
Ionian Islands (to Venice)
Balearic Isls
Corsica (to Genoa) (Ex 1768)
Minorca (Brit.) (Aust. 1708) (Sp. Bourbons 1782)
Majorca
Sardinia (Aust. 1720)
Sicily (Sav. 1714 Aust. 1720 Sp. Bourbons 1736)
Gibraltar (Brit.) (1713)
Malta (Knights of St. John)
Crete (Candia)
Rhodes
Lisbon
Madrid
Barcelona
Seville
Granada
Cadiz
Algiers
Tunis
Tangiers
Amsterdam
London
Paris
Vienna
Berlin
Munich
Dresden
Prague
Warsaw
Constantinople
Smyrna
Athens
Naples
Rome
Venice
Genoa
Florence
Milan
Turin
Marseilles
Lyons
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Nantes
Brest
Calais
Dunkirk
Ostend
Antwerp
Brussels
Hamburg
Bremen
Frankfort
Cologne
Leipsic
Dresden
Breslau
Cracow
Lemberg
Kiev
Moscow
St. Petersburg
Stockholm
Copenhagen
Christiania
Gothenburg
Riga
Reval
Narva
Pskof
Smolensk
Minsk
Vilna
Grodno
Danzig
Konigsberg
Thorn
Posen
Pinsk
Pultusk
Lublin
Radom
Cracow
Lemberg
Kaschau
Presburg
Buda
Pesth
Debreczin
Szathmar
Munkacz
Czernowitz
Jassy
Galatz
Braila
Bucharest
Kutchuk-Kainarji
Varna
Silistria
Danube
Drave
Save
Theiss
Hermannstadt
Temesvar
Agram
Peterwardein
Belgrade
Sarajevo
Mostar
Nish
Sofia
Adrianople
Philippopolis
Rhodope
Gallipoli
Dardanelles
Salonica
Durazzo
Cattaro
Ragusa
Montenegro
Janina
Corfu
Parga
Vonitza
Patras
Napoli
Morea (Venice 1699-1718)
Cephalonia
Zante
Candia
Cyprus
Aleppo
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Tangiers
Gibraltar (Brit.) (1713)
Lisbon
Oporto
Madrid
Barcelona
Seville
Granada
Cadiz
Valencia
Saragossa
Pamplona
Bilbao
Burgos
Valladolid
Toledo
Badajoz
Ciudad Real
Almanza
Murcia
Cartagena
Alicante
Tortosa
Lerida
Catalonia
Navarre
Biscay
Asturias
Leon
Santiago
Corunna
Vigo
Oporto
Braganza
Coimbra
Lisbon
Setubal
Evora
Portalegre
Castello Branco
Guarda
Viseu
Aveiro
Braga
Viana
Vila Real
Bragança
Miranda
Chaves
Guimaraens
Porto
Aveiro
Coimbra
Leiria
Santarem
Lisbon
Setubal
Evora
Beja

Digitized by Arya Samaj Foundation Chennai and eGangotri

a
THE NARROW SEAS
to illustrate
BRITISH NAVAL WARS
Scale 1: 6,000,000 (95 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
The Dates are those of the more important Sea fights
b
THE NORTH ATLANTIC
Equatorial Scale 1: 50,000,000
Nelson's Track
Villeneuve's
The Black Arrows show the prevailing Winds
NORTH SEA
IRISH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL (LA MANCHE)
ENGLAND
WALES
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
UNITED KINGDOM
HOLLAND
GERMANY
BELGIUM
NETHERLANDS
FRANCE
PICARDY
NORMANDY
BRITTANY
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
AFRICA
WEST INDIES
Gulf of Mexico
CARIBBEAN SEA
PACIFIC OCEAN
BRAZIL
GUIANA
Canary Is
Cape Verde Is
Azores
Madeira
Bermuda I.
Bahama Islands
Jamaica
HISPANIOLA
Newfoundland
Westerly Winds
North-East Trade Winds
South-East Trade Winds
Equatorial Calms
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
West from 2 Greenwich
East from 2 Greenwich
Heligoland Bight 1914
Heligoland
Cuxhaven
Hamburg
Bremerhaven
Wilhelmshaven
Frisian Islands
Texel
Helder
Camperdown 1797
Bergen
Zuider Zee
Rotterdam
The Hague
Brill
Walcheren I.
Flushing
Cadsand
Damme
Sluys 1340
Antwerp
Bergen op Zoom
Ostend
Bruges
Dunkirk 1658
Gravelines
Calais (1347-1557)
C. Gris Nez
Boulogne
Etaples
Abbeville
Dieppe
St Valery
Fécamp
Harfleur
Rouen
Honfleur
Le Havre
Barfleur
La Hougue 1692
Cherbourg
Alderney
C. de la Hague
Guernsey
Channel Is
Jersey 1651
Bayeux
Caen
Coutances
Granville
St Malo 1758
Avranches
Mont St Michel
B. of the Castles
Ushant
Brest
Morlaix
St Cast
Dinan
Quimper
Lorient
Hennebont
Auray
Vannes
Quiberon 1759, 1795
Belle Ile
Croisic
Anticosti I.
St Lawrence R.
Quebec
Miquelon I.
St John's
St Pierre I.
C. Race
Louisburg
Cape Breton I.
Halifax
Sable I.
C. Sable
Portland
Boston
C. Cod
Providence
New York
Newport
Long I.
Philadelphia
Baltimore
DELAWARE
Yorktown 1781
Norfolk
Chesapeake B.
C. Henry
Roanoke Sd
C. Hatteras
Savannah
Charleston
New Orleans
St Louis
Ohio
Mississippi
Key West
Florida
Havana
S. Salvador I.
Caicos Is
Vera Cruz
YUCATAN
1595
BR. HONDURAS
Belize
Kingston
Porto Rico
HAITI
DOMINGO
St Christophe
Guadeloupe
Kodney & de Grasse 1782
Antigua
Dominica
Martinique
St Lucia
St Vincent
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad
Curacoa I.
Caracas
Acajutla
Porto Bello
Panama
Cartagena
Maracaibo
G. of Darien
Orinoco
Esequibo
Paramaribo
Demerara R.
Surinam R.
Amazon
Pernambuco
Cape Verde
Porto Praya
C. Verde
Goree
Senegal
Gambia
SIERRA LEONE
C. Blanco (North)
C. Blanco (South)
C. Bojador
Santa Cruz 1797
Tenerife
Funchal
Lisbon
Oporto
Vigo
Corunna
C. Finisterre
Ferrol
Bilbao
Barcelona
Cartagena
Algiers
Gibraltar
Cadiz
Trafalgar
Tarifa
B. of Biscay
Bordeaux
Rochefort
La Rochelle
Belle I.
Lorient
Brest
Ushant
Scilly Is
Plymouth
Lands End
Falmouth
Portsmouth
London
Bristol
Liverpool
Hull
Spurn Hd
Lancaster
Anglesey
Chester
Trent
Severn
Boston
The Wash
King's Lynn
Yarmouth
Lowestoft 1665
Southwold
Sole Bay 1672
Gt Ouse
Harwich
The Nore
Gabbards
Sandwich
Dover
Folkestone
Romney
Hythe
Dungeness
Hastings
Beachy Hd
Winchelsea
Rye
Pevensey
1690
Chatham
1667
N. Foreland
The Downs
1653
1666
Thames
London
Bristol Chan.
Milford Haven
Pembroke
Fishguard 1796
Gloucester
Bideford
Barnstaple
Lyme Regis
Exeter
Poole
Southampton
Portsmouth
Spithead
St Helens
I. of Wight
1588
Weymouth
Portland
Torbay 1688
Plymouth
Devonport
St Ives
Falmouth
Whitsand B.
Dartmouth
1653
Lizard
Lands End
Ruhr
Rhine
Cologne
Mouse
Scheldt
Ghent
Brussels
Cassel
Julian 1917
Killala
Bantry B.
C. Clear
Scilly Is
1794
1805
Ems
Weser
Aller
Elbe
OLDENBURG
Bremen
Zuider Zee
Amsterdam
Utrecht
Arnhem
Nijmegen
Liège
Namur
Mons
Lille
Arras
Amiens
Rouen
Seine
Somme
Meuse
Moselle
Rhine
Ruhr
Cologne
Bonn
Coblenz
Mainz
Frankfort
Strasbourg
Metz
Nancy
Verdun
Sedan
Rheims
Paris
Orleans
Tours
Nantes
Rochefort
La Rochelle
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Marseilles
Nice
Genoa
Turin
Milan
Venice
Trieste
Vienna
Prague
Dresden
Berlin
Hamburg
Bremen
Hanover
Cassel
Frankfort
Nuremberg
Munich
Augsburg
Ulm
Stuttgart
Basle
Zurich
Lucerne
Geneva
Lyons
Avignon
Montpellier
Perpignan
Barcelona
Valencia
Alicante
Cartagena
Algiers
Gibraltar
Tangier
Fez
Oran
Tunis
Malta
Sicily
Naples
Rome
Ancona
Trieste
Fiume
Belgrade
Budapest

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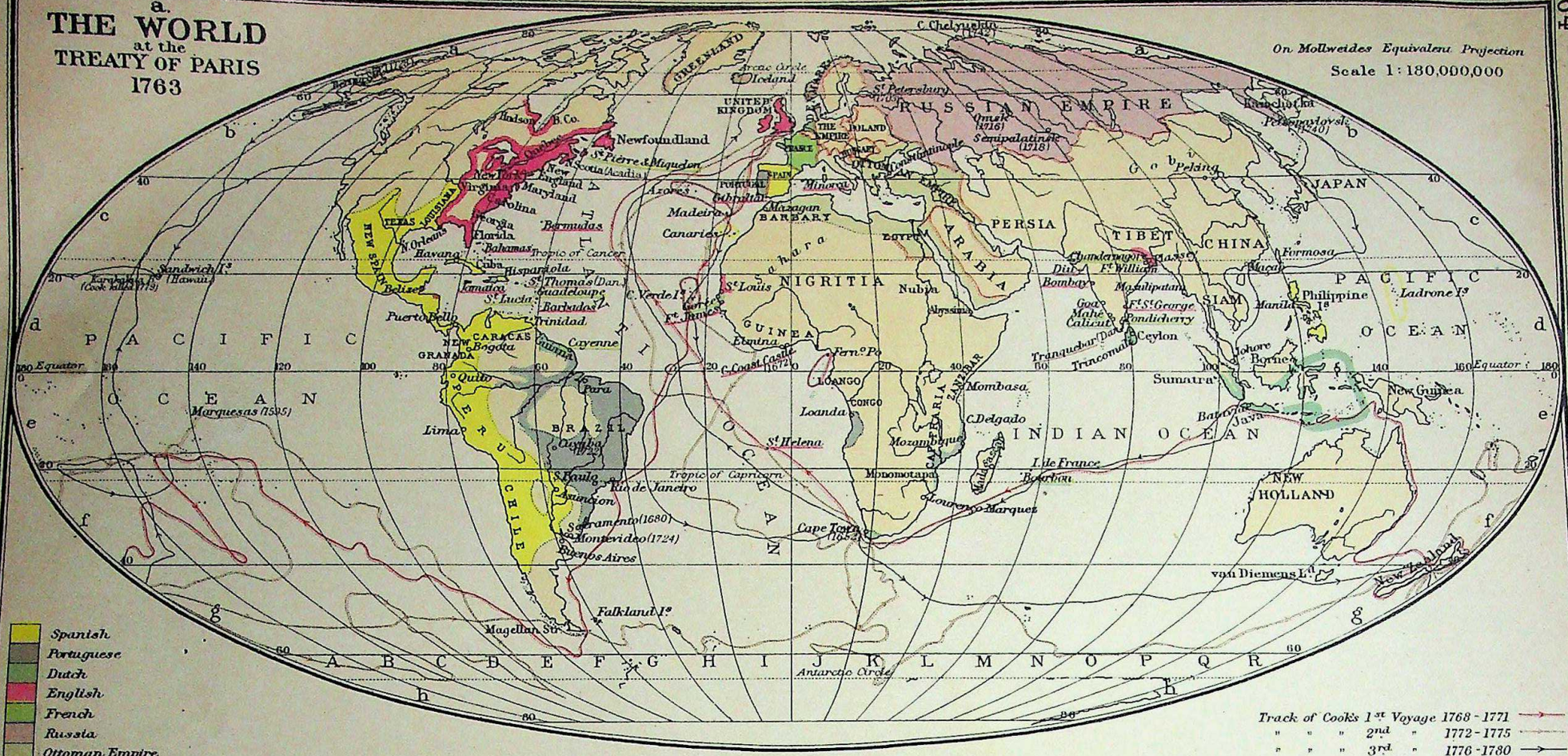
NORTH AMERICA
1689 - 1783
Scale 1:10,000,000 (160 miles=1inch)
English Miles
0 50 100 150 200 250
Extreme limits of Territory controlled in 1763 by English settlements
" " by French "
" " by Spanish "
Territory ceded by France & Spain in 1763
Proclamation line of 1763
Johnson's Line 1763
Treaty boundary of United States 1783
Boundaries of the Thirteen States
French forts are underlined in Red
a.
QUEBEC
St Lawrence River
Isle of Orleans
b.
BOSTON
Highlands over 3000 feet
Uplands " 600 - 3000 "
Lowlands " 0 - 600 "
Ceded by France to Spain
Claimed by Spain (Claim abandoned 1795)
WEST FLORIDA
Choctaws
Creeks
Cherokees
Shawnees
Miamis
Illinois
Iowas
Sioux
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Lake Superior
Mississippi
Ohio
Missouri
Arkansas
Chicago
Detroit
Niagara
Montreal
Quebec
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Charleston
Savannah
New Orleans
Mobile
Pensacola
St Augustine
Natchez
Kaskaskia
Cahokia
St Louis
Vincennes
Fort Pitt
Fort Duquesne
Fort Niagara
Fort Frontenac
Fort Oswego
Fort Detroit
Fort Michilimackinac
Fort Chartres
Fort Toulouse
Fort Moore
Fort Loudoun
Fort Prince George
Fort Augusta
Fort Chiswell
Fort Dobbs
Fort Johnston
Fort Granville
Fort Bute
Fort Panmure
Fort Charlotte
Fort Tombecbe
Fort Bowman
Fort Jefferson
Fort Nelson
Fort Pickawillany
Fort Sandusky
Fort Miami
Fort St Joseph
Fort Ouiatanon
Fort Massac
Fort Chartres
Fort Gage

a.

THE WORLD at the TREATY OF PARIS 1763

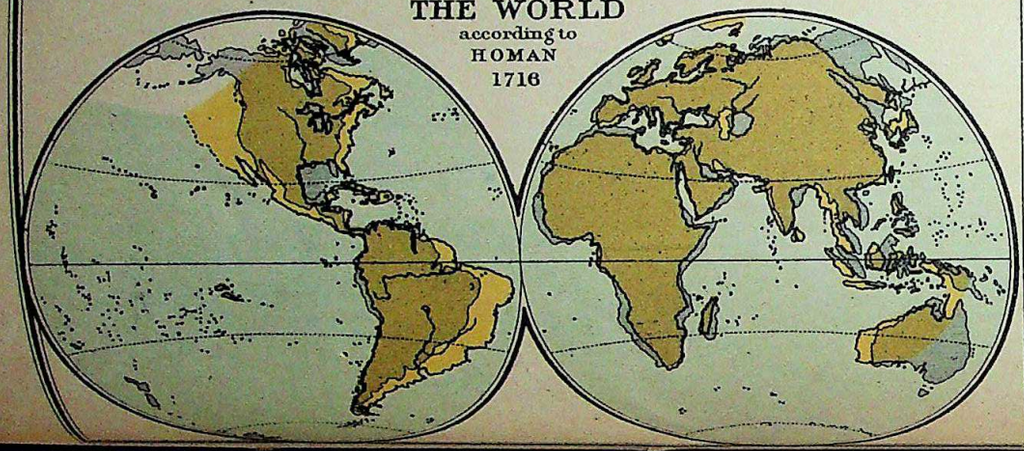
On Mollweides Equivalent Projection

Scale 1:180,000,000



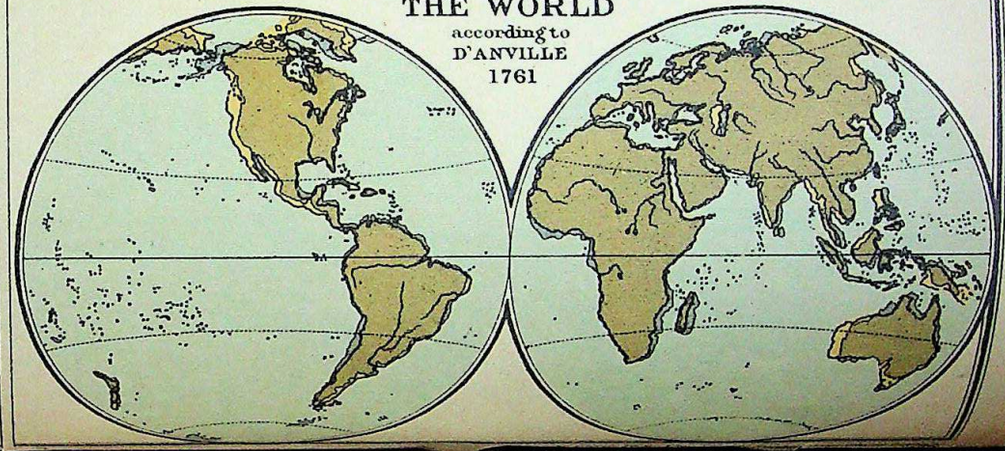
b.

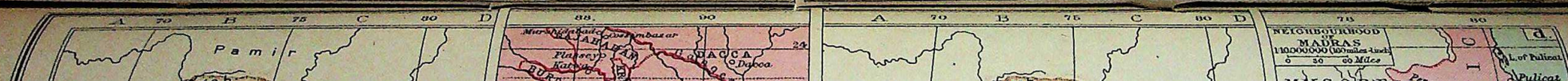
THE WORLD according to HOMAN 1716



c.

THE WORLD according to D'ANVILLE 1761





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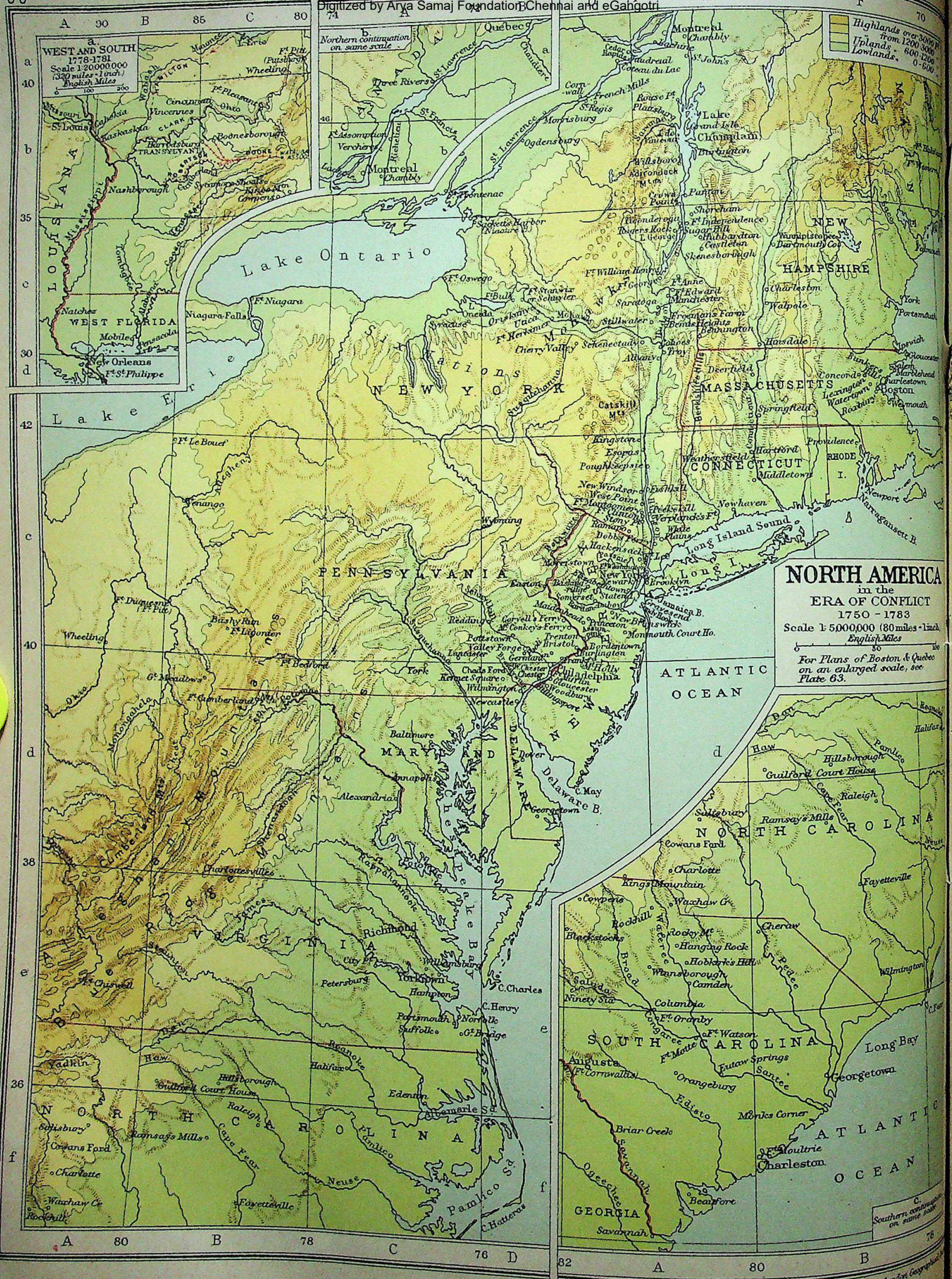

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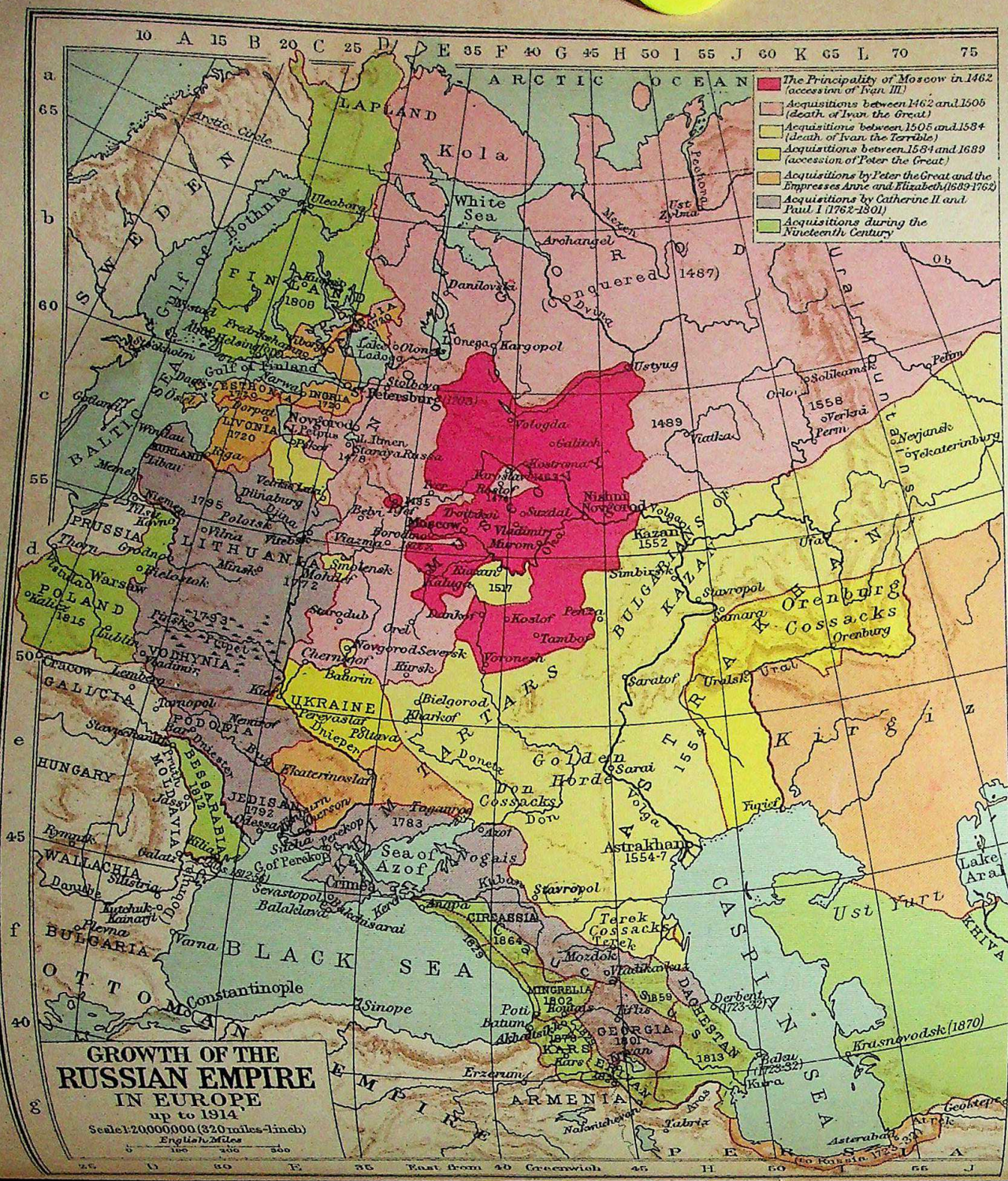
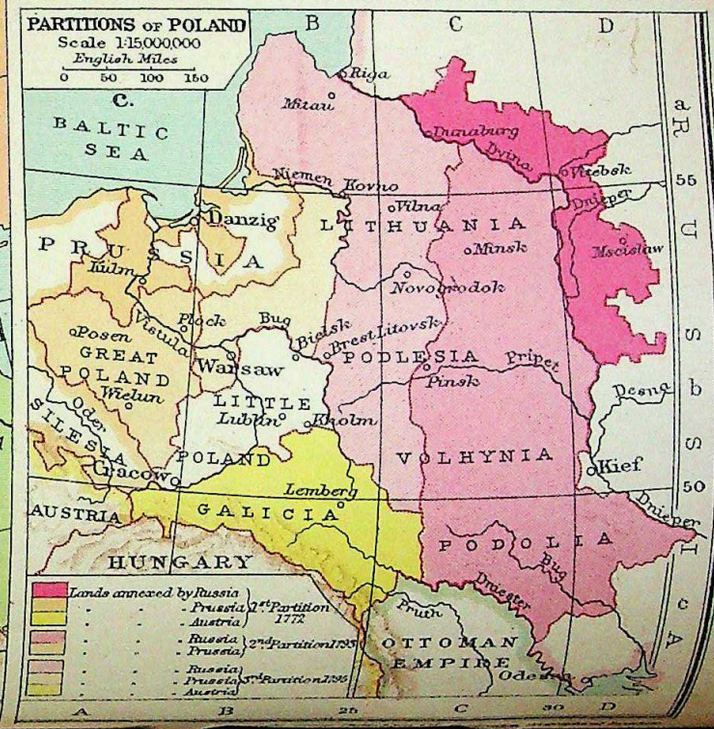


GROWTH OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE up to 1914

Scale 1:20000000 (320 miles=1inch)

English Miles



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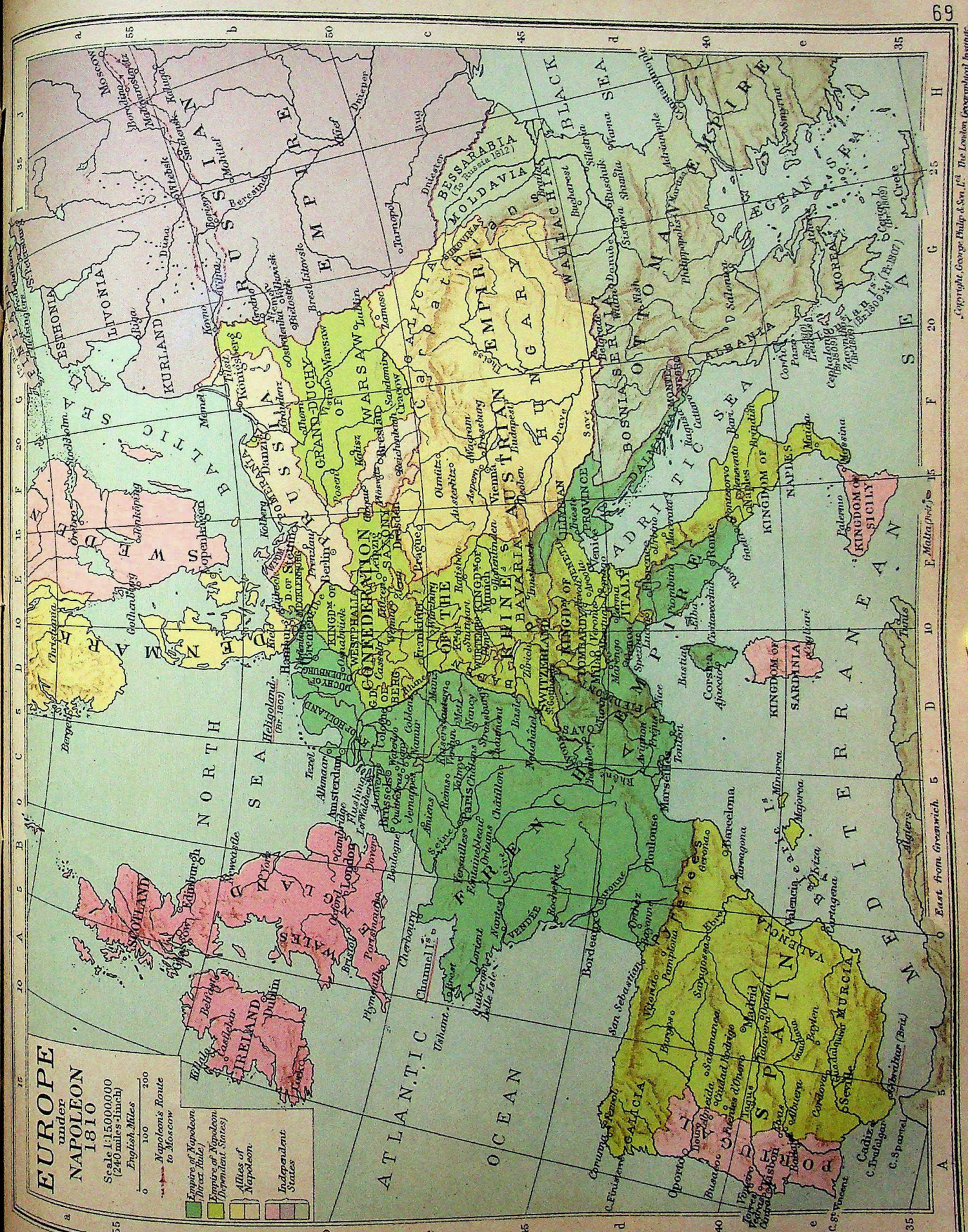
EUROPE
under
NAPOLEON
1810
Scale 1:15000000
(240 miles-1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200
Napoleon's Route to Moscow
Empire of Napoleon (Direct Rule)
Empire of Napoleon (Dependent States)
Allies of Napoleon
Independent States
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BLACK SEA
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
PRUSSIA
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
ITALY
GERMANY
SWEDEN
DENMARK
TURKEY
GREECE
HUNGARY
SWITZERLAND
BAVARIA
SAXONY
WESTPHALIA
GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
KINGDOM OF SICILY
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
KINGDOM OF HOLLAND
KINGDOM OF ITALY
KINGDOM OF WESTPHALIA
KINGDOM OF BAVARIA
KINGDOM OF SAXONY
KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
KINGDOM OF GREECE
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
KINGDOM OF WALLACHIA
KINGDOM OF MOLDAVIA
KINGDOM OF BOSNIA
KINGDOM OF SERVIA
KINGDOM OF ALBANIA
KINGDOM OF MORÉA
KINGDOM OF CANDIA
KINGDOM OF CYPRUS
KINGDOM OF CRETE
KINGDOM OF SMYRNA
KINGDOM OF ALGIERS
KINGDOM OF TUNIS
KINGDOM OF TRIPOLI
KINGDOM OF MOROCCO
KINGDOM OF FEZ
KINGDOM OF ALGARVE
KINGDOM OF GRANADA
KINGDOM OF MURCIA
KINGDOM OF VALENCIA
KINGDOM OF CATALONIA
KINGDOM OF ARAGON
KINGDOM OF NAVARRE
KINGDOM OF LEON
KINGDOM OF CASTILE
KINGDOM OF ESTHONIA
KINGDOM OF LIVONIA
KINGDOM OF KURLAND
KINGDOM OF POLAND
KINGDOM OF BESSARABIA
KINGDOM OF MOLDAVIA
KINGDOM OF WALLACHIA
KINGDOM OF SERVIA
KINGDOM OF BOSN

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IBERIAN PENINSULA
at the time of the
PENINSULAR WAR
Scale 1:5,000,000 (80 miles=1 inch)
English Miles
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Strait of Gibraltar
LISBON
EUROPE
after the
CONGRESS OF VIENNA
1815
Scale 1:20,000,000 (320 miles=1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400
Boundary of German Confederation
UNITED KINGDOM
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SWEDEN
NORWAY
DENMARK
BALTIC SEA
RUSSIA
FINLAND
PRUSSIA
HANOVER
HESSE
SAXONY
POLAND
LITHUANIA
VOLHYNIA
UKRAINE
PODOLIA
BESSARABIA
MOLDAVIA
WALLACHIA
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
SWITZERLAND
FRANCE
Bay of Biscay
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
BOSNIA
SERVIA
BULGARIA
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
BLACK SEA
Sea of Azof
Caucasus
PAPAL STATES
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES
GREECE
Ionian Islands
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
TRIPOLIS
EGYPT
Copenhagen
Stockholm
Reval
Petersburg
Moscow
Warsaw
Berlin
Hamburg
Dresden
Munich
Vienna
Prague
Paris
London
Madrid
Lisbon
Rome
Naples
Constantinople
Smyrna
Cairo
Alexandria
Malta (Brit.)
Gibraltar (Br.)
Heligoland (Br.)
Corfu (Fr. 1807)
Cephalonia (Br. 1815)
Zante (Br. 1815)
Navarino
Crete (Candia)
Cyprus
Rhodes
Damascus
Jerusalem
Aleppo
Beirut
Acre
Jaffa
Damietta
Suez
Nile
Euphrates
Tigris
Volga
Don
Dniester
Danube
Vistula
Rhine
Elbe
Oder
Seine
Loire
Ebro
Tagus
Guadiana
Guadalquivir
Pyrenees
Alps
Apennines
Carpathians
Caucasus
Scale 1:2,500,000
English Miles
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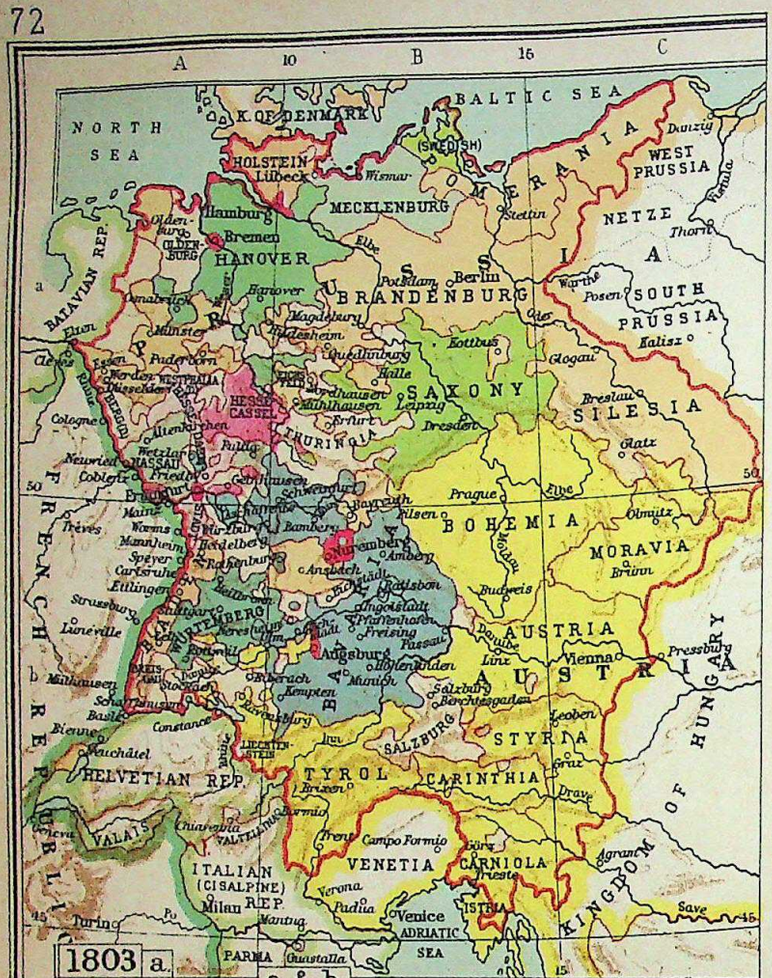

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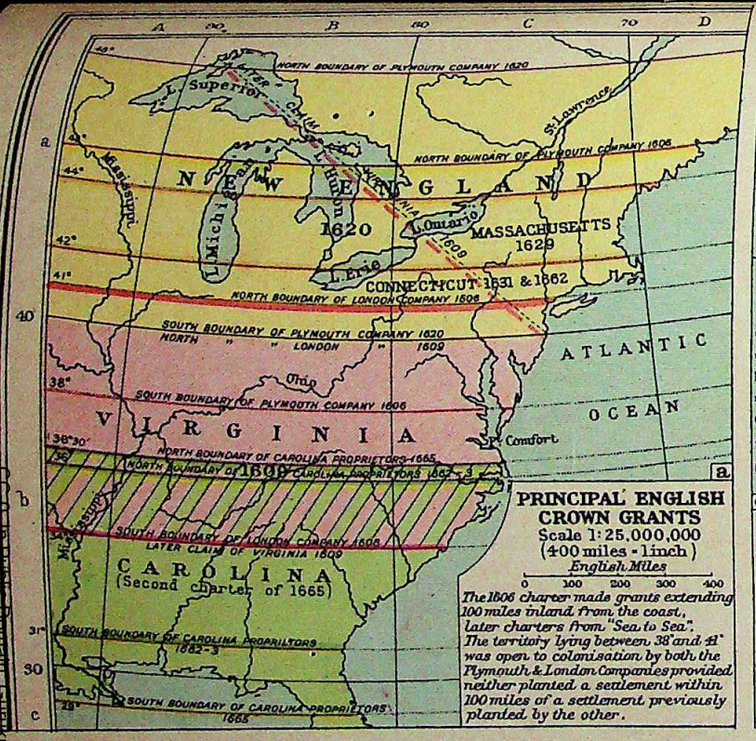

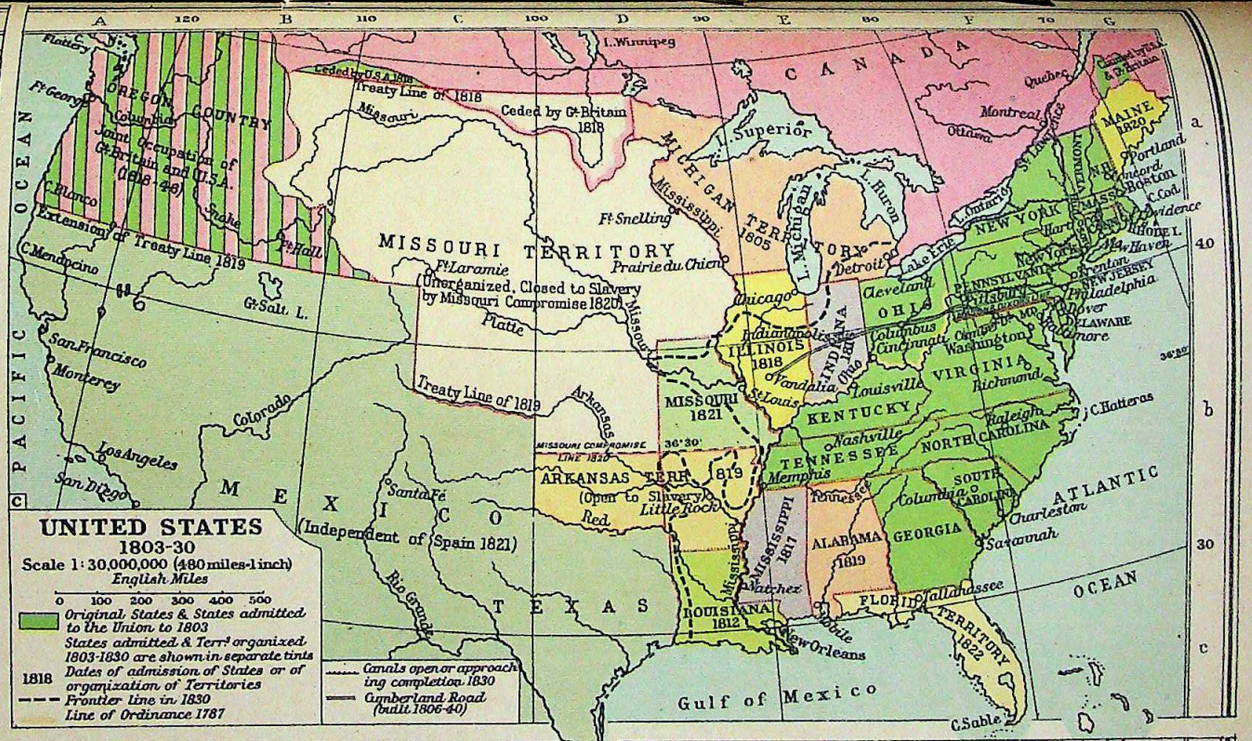

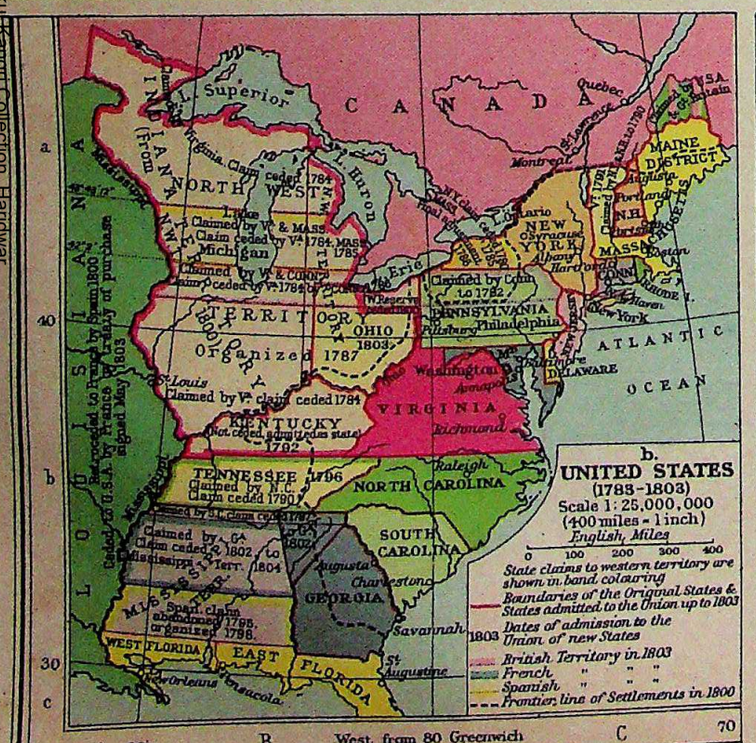

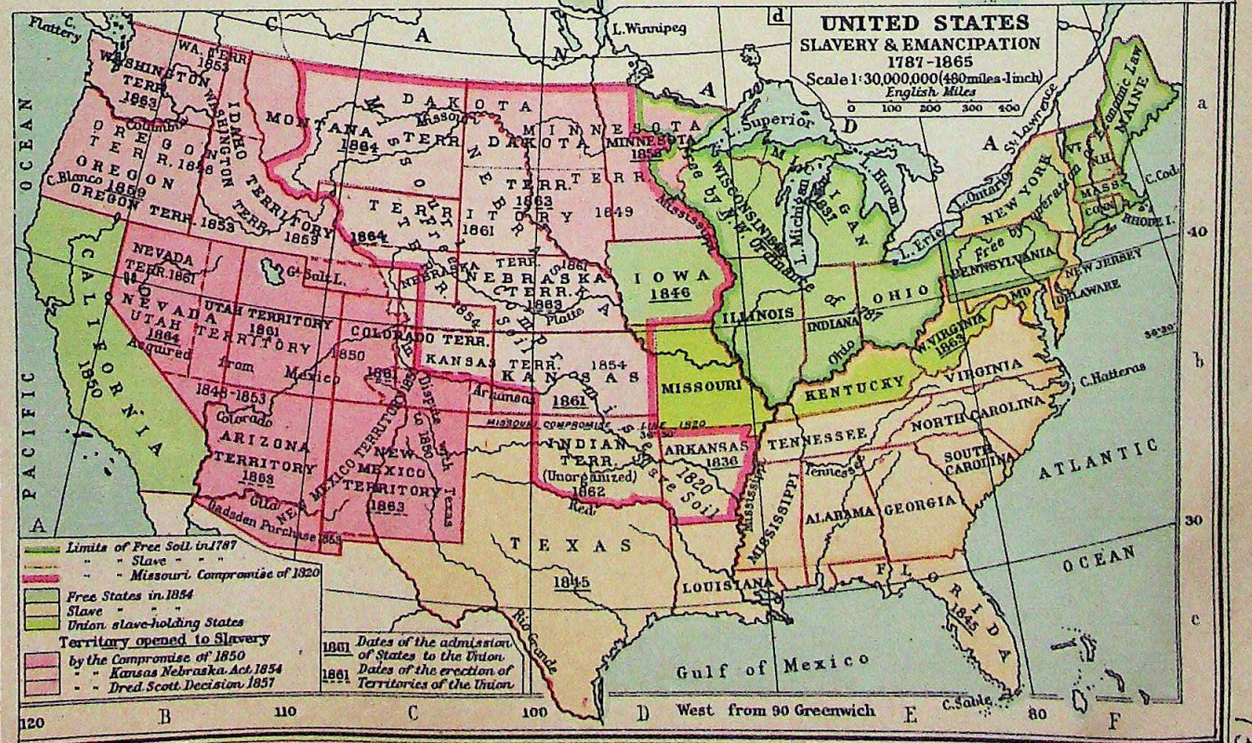

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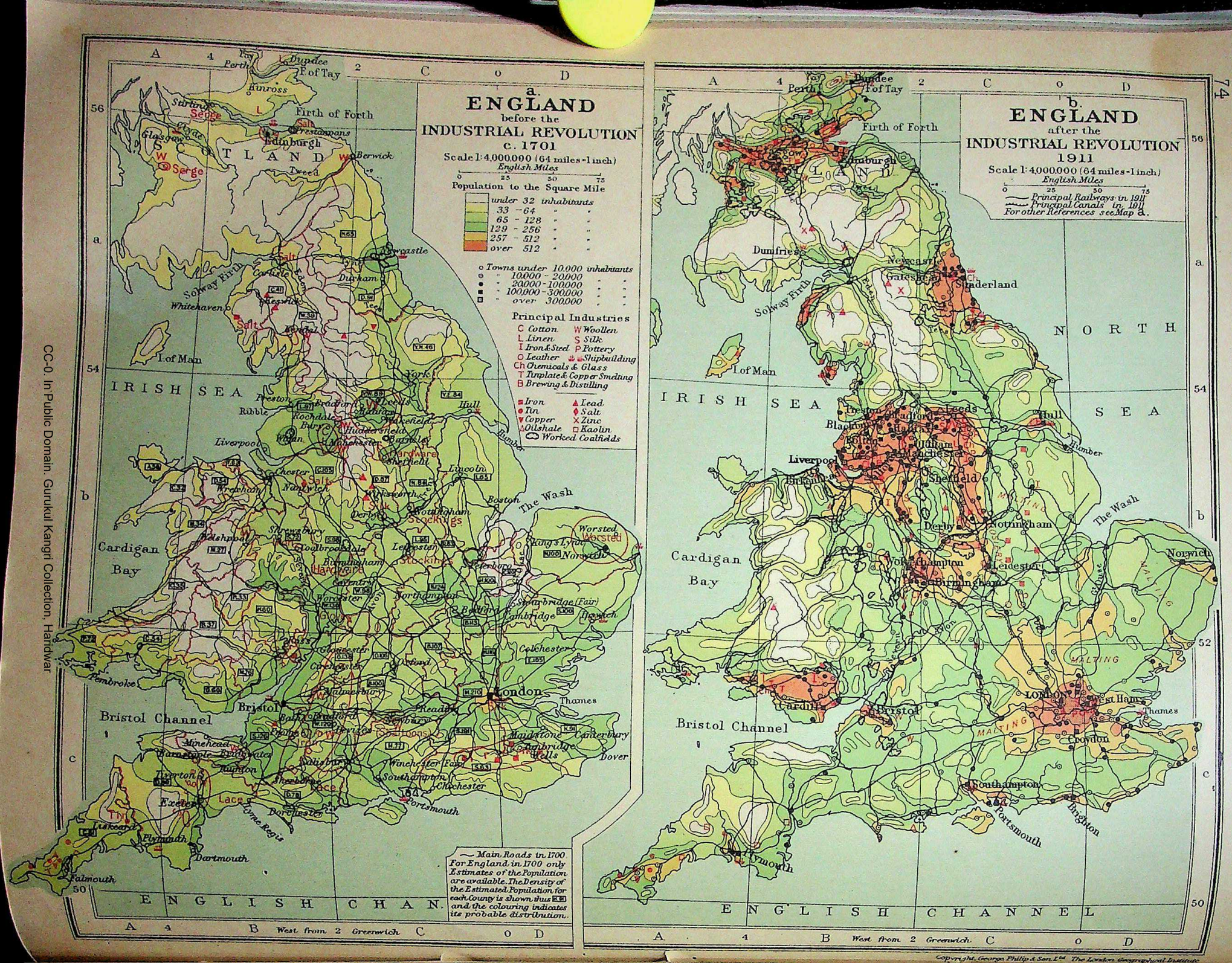

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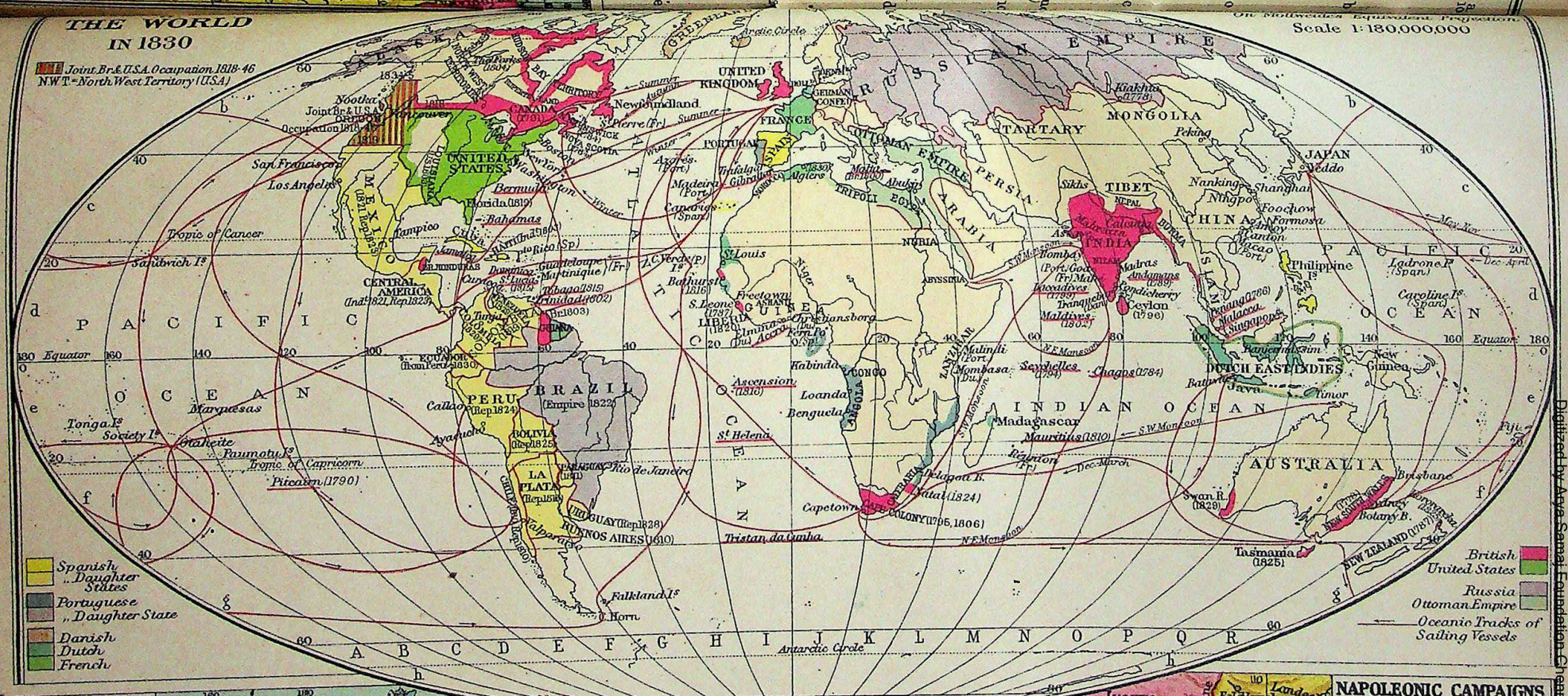

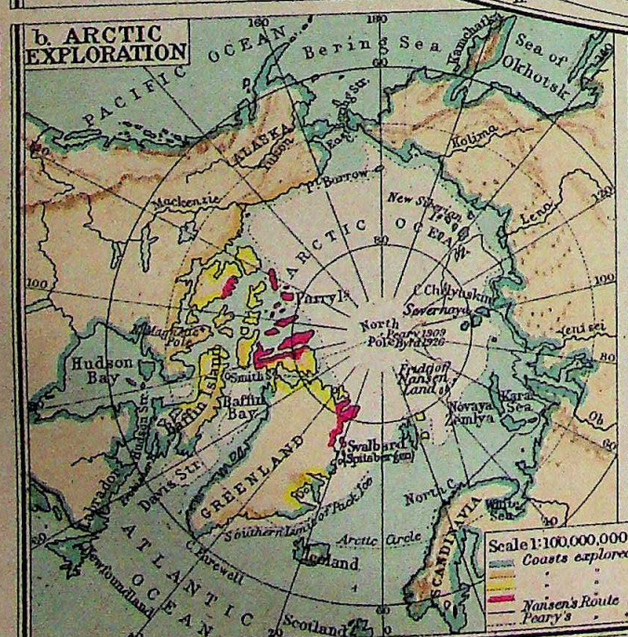

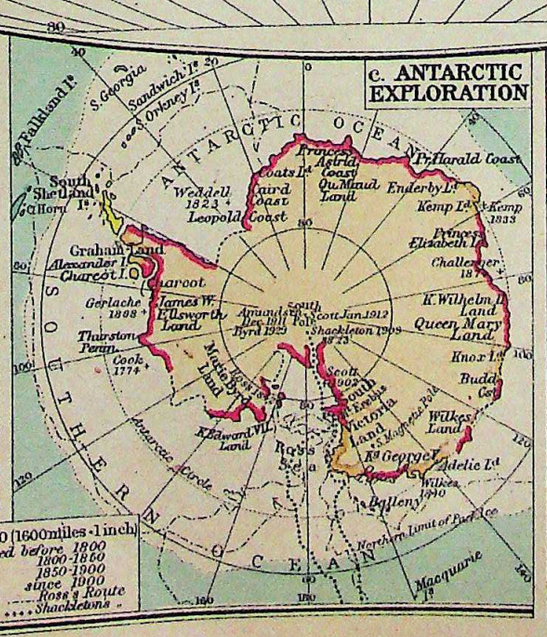

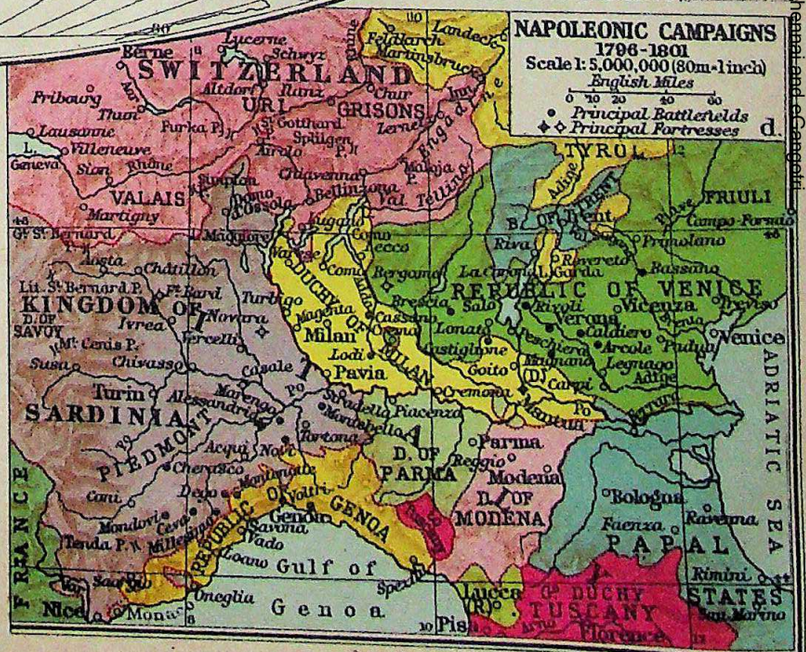

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ALASKA
Mt. St. Elias 18024
Mt. Logan 19850
(to U.S.A.)
YUKON 1895
White Horse
L. Teslin
Dawson
Klondike
Stewart R.
Sikanni Chief R.
Ft. Norman
Peel R.
Old Ft. Franklin
Bear L.
Great Bear L.
Bathurst Inlet
Arctic Circle
NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES 1875
MACKENZIE 1895
Ft. Simpson
Mackenzie R.
Ft. Rae
Great Slave Lake
Ft. Providence
Ft. Resolution
Ft. Smith
Chesterfield Inlet
Southampton I.
Hudson Bay
KEEWATIN 1876
Coats I.
Mansel I.
Hudson Bay Territory
Churchill
Port Nelson
York Factory (1688)
Fort Severn (1688)
Belcher Is.
Nelson
Churchill
L. Athabaska
Athabaska R.
Ft. Chipewyan
Peace R.
Ft. St. John
Peace River Line
Ft. Vermilion
Ft. McMurray
1882
ALBERTA 1905
SASKATCHEWAN 1905
NEW SOUTH WALES (to Manitoba 1912)
MANITOBA
Lake Winnipegosis
Lake Winnipeg
Winnipeg
Red R.
Selkirk
Ft. Alexander
Rat Portage
Lake of the Woods
Ft. William
Port Arthur
Rainy R.
Lake Superior
Sault Ste Marie
Sudbury
L. Nipigon
Albany
Moose
Moose Factory
James Bay
RUPERT'S LAND (to Ontario 1912)
Ft. Albany (1688)
ONTARIO 1867
Dalhousie
Ottawa
Kingston
Toronto
Hamilton
Niagara
Buffalo
Rochester
Syracuse
Albany
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Washington
Baltimore
Richmond
Norfolk
Cape Hatteras
Chesapeake Bay
Delaware Bay
Atlantic Ocean
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Prince Edward I.
Nova Scotia
New Brunswick
Maine
Portland
Quebec
Montreal

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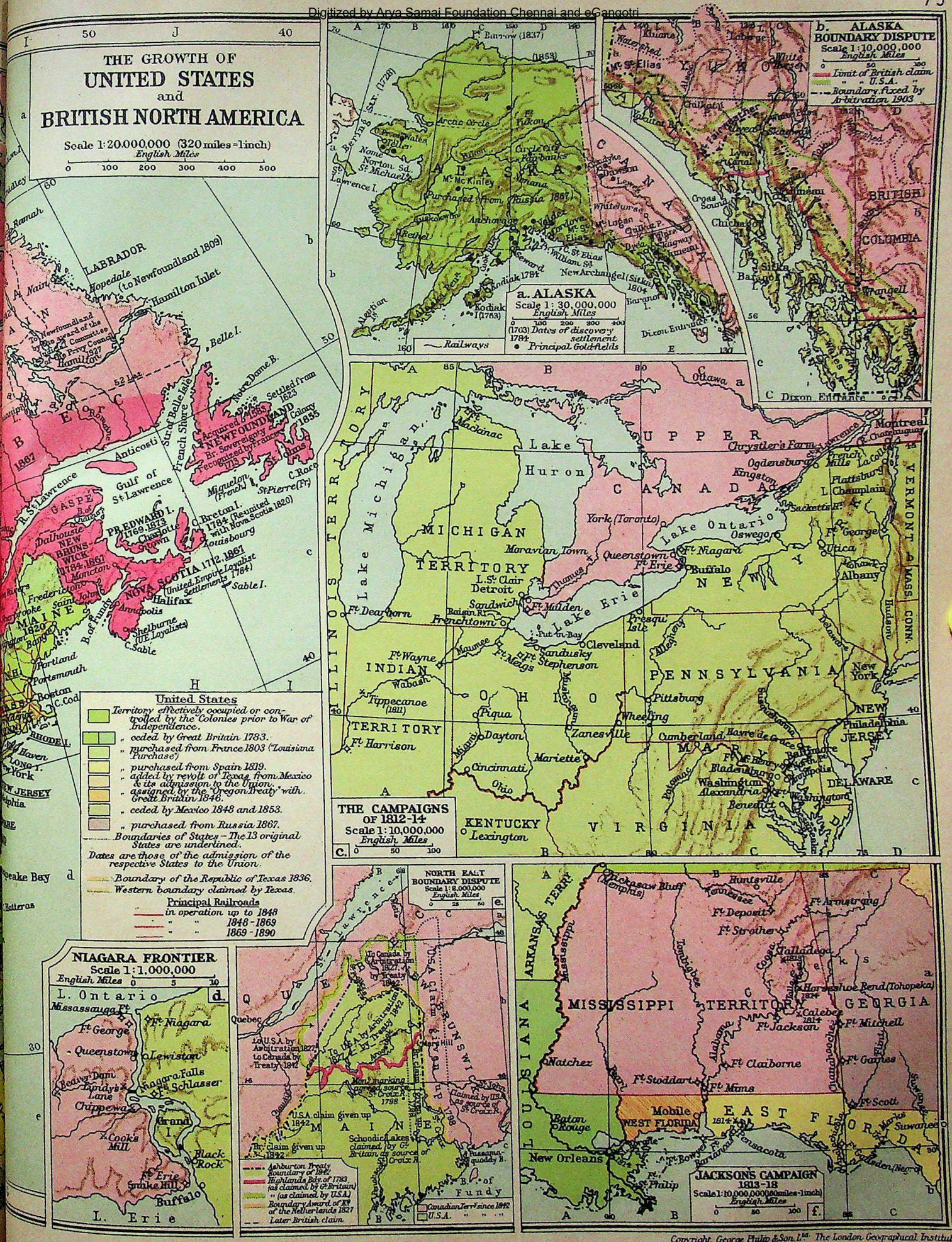
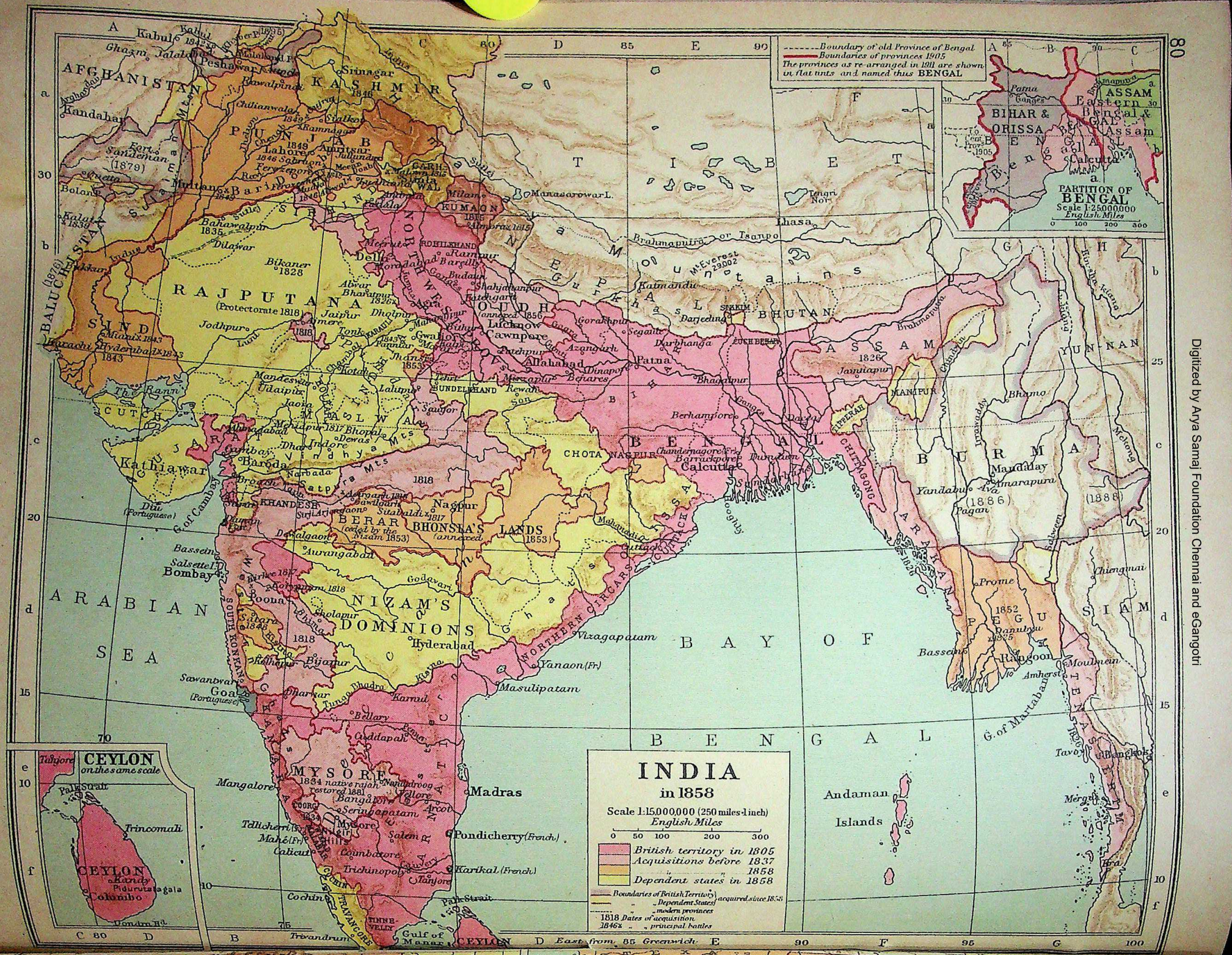

THE GROWTH OF
UNITED STATES
and
BRITISH NORTH AMERICA
Scale 1:20,000,000 (320 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
a. ALASKA
Scale 1: 30,000,000
English Miles
b. ALASKA BOUNDARY DISPUTE
Scale 1:10,000,000
English Miles
Limit of British claim
" " U.S.A. "
Boundary fixed by Arbitration 1903
United States
Territory effectively occupied or controlled by the Colonies prior to War of Independence.
" ceded by Great Britain 1783.
" purchased from France 1803 ("Louisiana Purchase")
" purchased from Spain 1819.
" added by revolt of Texas from Mexico & its admission to the Union.
" assigned to the "Oregon Treaty" with Great Britain 1846.
" ceded by Mexico 1848 and 1853.
" purchased from Russia 1867.
Boundaries of States – The 13 original States are underlined.
Dates are those of the admission of the respective States to the Union.
Boundary of the Republic of Texas 1836.
Western boundary claimed by Texas.
Principal Railroads
in operation up to 1848
" " 1848 - 1869
" " 1869 - 1890
THE CAMPAIGNS OF 1812-14
Scale 1:10,000,000
English Miles
NIAGARA FRONTIER
Scale 1:1,000,000
English Miles
NORTH EAST BOUNDARY DISPUTE
Scale 1:6,000,000
English Miles
JACKSONS CAMPAIGN 1813-18
Scale 1:10,000,000 (160 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
UPPER CANADA
LOWER CANADA
MICHIGAN TERRITORY
INDIANA TERRITORY
OHIO
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
VERMONT
MASS.
CONN.
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
KENTUCKY
MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY
GEORGIA
EAST FLORIDA
WEST FLORIDA
LOUISIANA
ARKANSAS TERR.
MAINE
NEW BRUNSWICK
NOVA SCOTIA
PRINCE EDWARD I.
NEWFOUNDLAND
LABRADOR
BRITISH COLUMBIA
Lake Huron
Lake Michigan
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie
L. Ontario
L. Erie
Detroit
Fort Dearborn
Fort Wayne
Tippecanoe (1811)
Piqua
Dayton
Cincinnati
Mariette
Zanesville
Wheeling
Pittsburg
Cleveland
Sandusky
Fort Meigs
Fort Stephenson
Fort Mulden
Frenchtown
Queenstown
Fort Erie
Buffalo
York (Toronto)
Moravian Town
Fort George
Fort Niagara
Oswego
Utica
Albany
New York
Philadelphia
Washington
Baltimore
Havre de Grace
Cumberland
Lexington
Fort Harrison
Fort Deposit
Fort Strother
Talladega
Horseshoe Bend (Tohopeka)
Fort Mitchell
Fort Jackson
Fort Claiborne
Fort Mims
Fort Scott
Fort Gaines
Fort Stoddart
Natchez
Mobile
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Pensacola
Fort Bowyer
Fort Philip
Chickasaw Bluff (Memphis)
Huntsville
Tennessee
Alabama
Mississippi
Tombigbee
Escambia
Chattahoochee
Flint
Suwanee
Milledgeville
Augusta
Savannah
Charleston
Fort Niagara
Fort George
Queenstown
Lewiston
Niagara Falls
Schlosser
Beaver Dam
Lundy's Lane
Chippewa
Grand I.
Cook's Mill
Black Rock
Fort Erie
Smoke Hill
Buffalo
Quebec
Montreal
Ottawa
Kingston
Prescott
Ogdensburg
Chrystler's Farm
Plattsburg
Champlain
Sackett's Ft.
French Mills
La Colle
Fort Mackinac
Fort Dearborn
Fort Malden
Sandwich
Frenchtown
Put-in-Bay
Presqu' Isle
Fort Meigs
Fort Stephenson
Fort Wayne
Maumee
Wabash
Miami
Portage
Sandusky
Allegheny
Susquehanna
Delaware
Hudson
Havre de Grace
Baltimore
Fredericktown
Washington
Alexandria
Georgetown
Benedict
Bladensburg
Fort Mc Henry
Annapolis
Halifax
Shelburne (U.E. Loyalists)
C. Sable
Sable I.
Louisbourg
C. Breton I.
Miquelon (French)
St. Pierre (Fr.)
C. Race
St. John's
Conception B.
Trinity B.
Bonavista B.
Placentia B.
Hopedale (to Newfoundland 1809)
Hamilton Inlet
Belle I.
Anticosti
Gulf of St. Lawrence
B. of Fundy
Passamaquoddy B.
Moose Factory
Hudson Bay
Portland
Portsmouth
Boston
Cape Cod
Rhode I.
New Haven
Long I.
Hamilton
Cleveland
Columbus
Cincinnati
Portsmouth
Lexington
Frankfort
Nashville
Augusta
Savannah
Charleston
Cape Hatteras
Chesapeake Bay
Norfolk
Richmond
Petersburg
Fredericksburg
Alexandria
Washington
Baltimore
Philadelphia
New York
Boston
Portland
Portsmouth
Concord
Albany
Utica
Oswego
Sackett's Ft.
Plattsburg
Champlain
Montreal
Quebec
Ottawa
Kingston
Prescott
Ogdensburg
Chrystler's Farm



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SOUTH EASTERN UNITED STATES to illustrate the CIVIL WAR
Scale 1:10,000,000 (160 miles - 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100 200
Federal States
Doubtful States ultimately federal
Confederate States
Mason & Dixon's Line
Railways existing at the time of the war.
SHERMAN'S MARCH
Scale 1:7,500,000 (120m-1inch)
English Miles
0 50
Railways
THE EASTERN FIELD of the CIVIL WAR
1:2,500,000 (40m-1inch)
English Miles
0 30 60
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Chesapeake Bay
Potomac R.
York R.
James R.
Roanoke
Norfolk
Richmond
Baltimore
Washington
Harrisburg
Philadelphia
New York
NEW JERSEY
PENNSYLVANIA
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
ALABAMA
MISSISSIPPI
LOUISIANA
ARKANSAS
TENNESSEE
KENTUCKY
INDIANA
ILLINOIS
OHIO
MISSOURI
Gettysburg
Antietam
Harpers Ferry
Frederick City
Shepherdstown
Hagerstown
Chambersburg
Manassas Jnc.
Bull Run
Fredericksburg
Chancellorsville
Spotsylvania C.H.
Wilderness
Petersburg
City Point
Richmond
Malvern H.
Harrison's Landing
Williamsburg
Yorktown
Fort Monroe
Newport News
Norfolk
Suffolk
Portsmouth
Weldon
Wilmington
Charleston
Savannah
Atlanta
Vicksburg
Memphis
New Orleans
Mobile
Pensacola
Fort Pickens
Fort Morgan
Fort Jackson
Fort St Philip
Fort Pulaski
Fort Sumter
Fort Fisher
Cape Hatteras
Cape Lookout
Cape Fear
Cape Henry
Cape Charles
Cape Romain
Cape Canaveral
Cape Florida
Key West
Tortugas
Havana
Bahama Is.
Cuba
Jamaica
Yucatan
Mexico
Texas
Indian Territory
Kansas
Nebraska
Colorado
Utah
New Mexico
Arizona
California
Oregon
Nevada
Dakota
Minnesota
Iowa
Wisconsin
Michigan
Canada
Hudson's Bay
Labrador
Newfoundland
Nova Scotia
New Brunswick
Prince Edward I.
Anticosti I.
Gulf of St Lawrence
Gulf of Mexico
Caribbean Sea
Bermuda
Azores
Madeira
Canary Is.
Cape Verde Is.
Sandwich Is.
Galapagos Is.
Marquesas Is.
Society Is.
Tahiti
Fiji Is.
Sandwich Is.
Hawaii
Sandwich Is.
Sandwich Is.
Sandwich Is.

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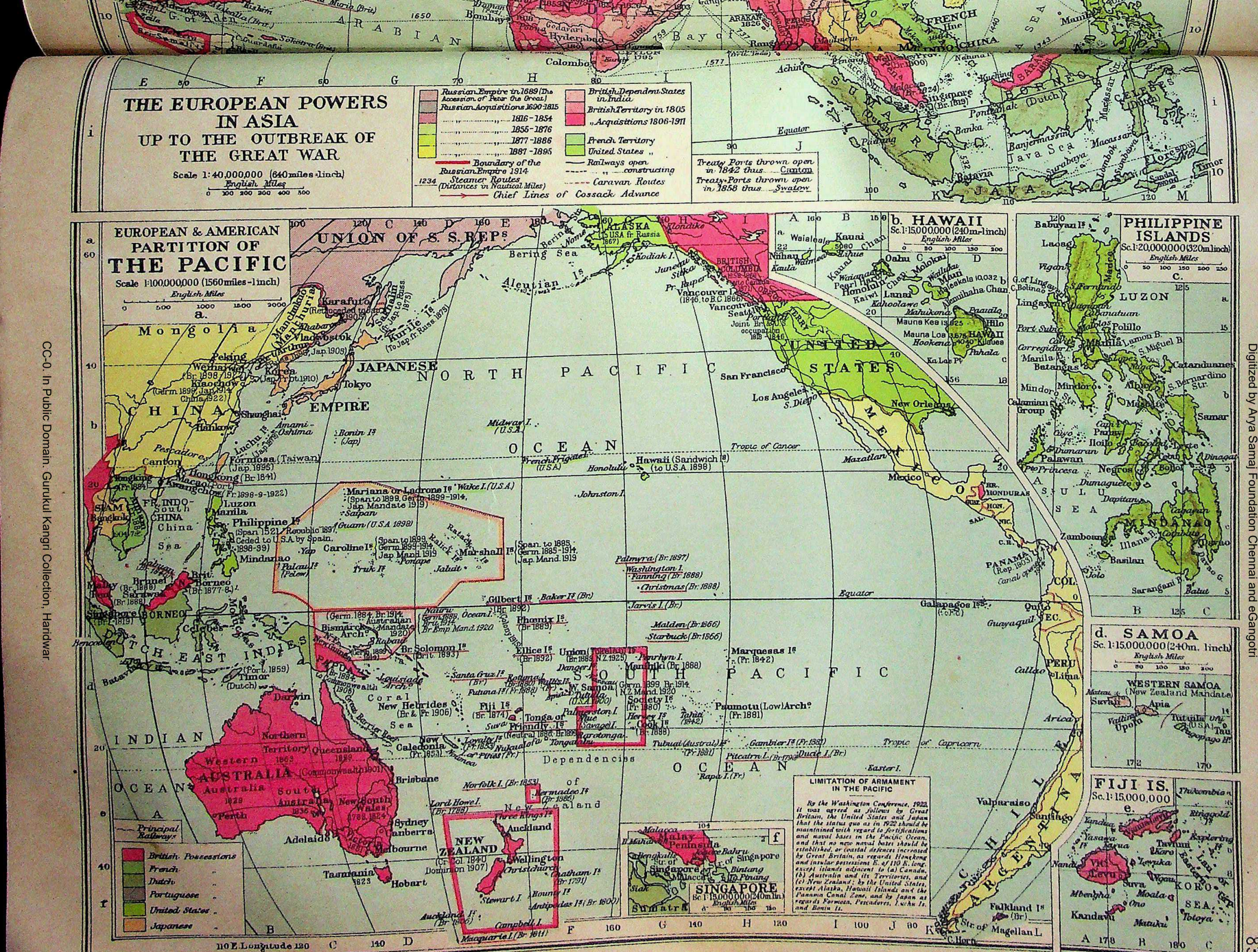
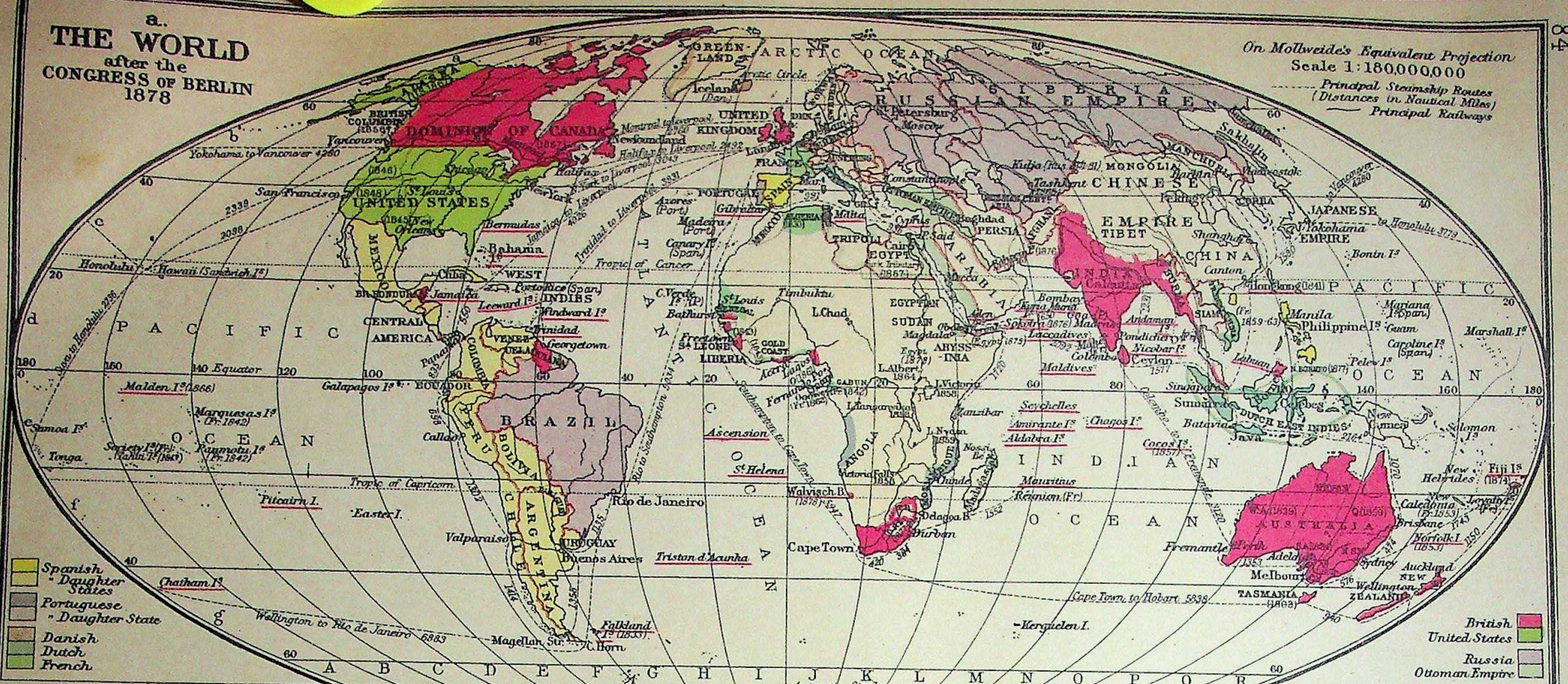
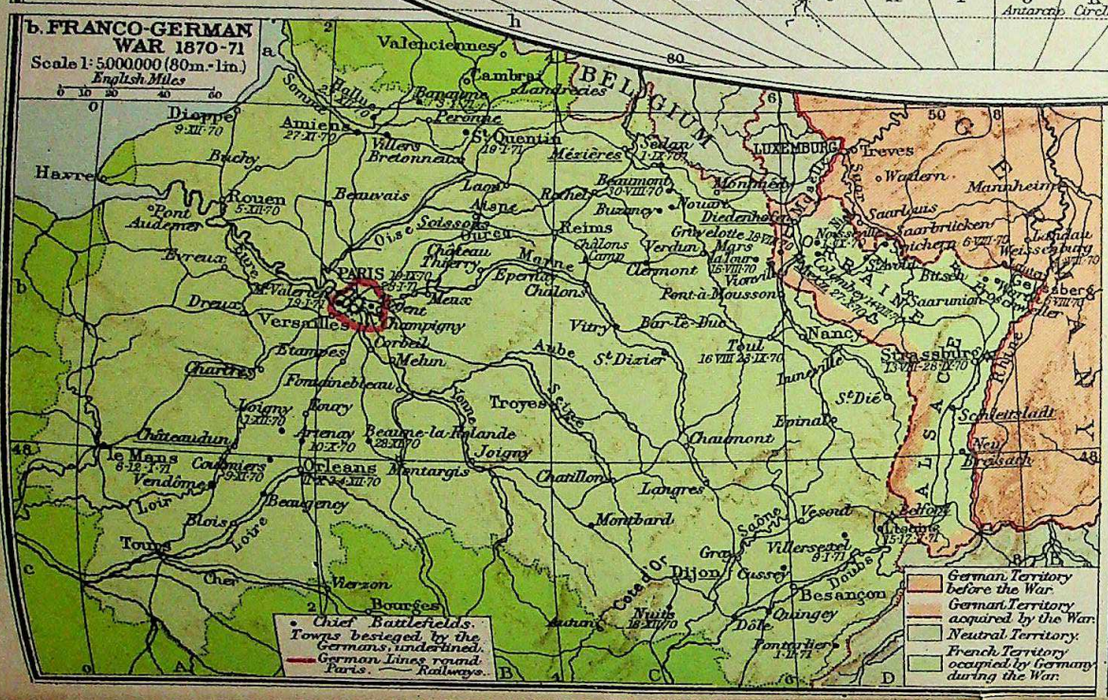
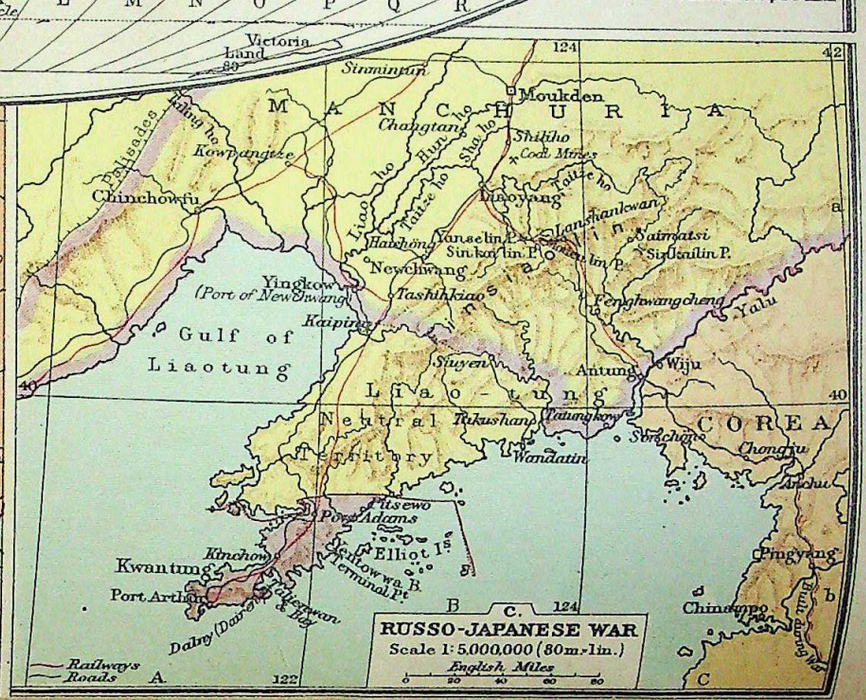
THE EUROPEAN POWERS
British Dependent States in India.
British Territory in 1805
Russian Empire in 1689 (The Accession of Peter the Great)
Russian Acquisitions 1690-1815
PACIFIC OCEAN
ARCTIC OCEAN
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Baltic Sea
North Sea
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Gulf of Oman
Arabian Sea
Bay of Bengal
Mediterranean Sea
Norwegian Sea
Barents Sea
Kara Sea
White Sea
Sea of Okhotsk
Japan Sea
Yellow Sea
East China Sea
South China Sea
Philippine Sea
Sea of Japan
Gulf of Aden
Gulf of Oman
Persian Gulf
Red Sea
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Baltic Sea
North Sea


THE EUROPEAN POWERS IN ASIA
UP TO THE OUTBREAK OF THE GREAT WAR
Scale 1:40,000,000 (640 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
Russian Empire in 1689 (Treaty of Nerchinsk)
Accession of Peter the Great
Russian Acquisitions 1690-1815
1816-1854
1855-1876
1877-1886
1887-1895
Boundary of the Russian Empire 1914
Steamer Routes (Distances in Nautical Miles)
Chief Lines of Cossack Advance
British Dependent States in India
British Territory in 1805
Acquisitions 1806-1911
French Territory
United States
Railways open
constructing
Caravan Routes
Treaty Ports thrown open in 1842 thus Canton
Treaty Ports thrown open in 1858 thus Swatow
EUROPEAN & AMERICAN PARTITION OF THE PACIFIC
Scale 1:100,000,000 (1560 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
a.
UNION OF S. S. REPS
ALASKA (U.S.A. fr. Russia 1867)
Bering Sea
Aleutian Is
Karafuto (Reoccupied to Jap. 1905)
Sakhalin (Ceded to Jap. to Russ. 1875)
Kurile Is (To Jap. fr. Russ. 1875)
Vladivostok
Manchuria (Mantchukuo)
Mongolia
Peking
Weihaiwei (Br. 1898, 1930)
Kiaochow (Germ. 1898, Jap. 1914, China 1922)
Korea (Jap. Prot. 1910)
Tokyo
JAPANESE EMPIRE
CHINA
Shanghai
Hankow
Amami-Oshima
Bonin Is (Jap)
Midway I. (U.S.A.)
NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN
Tropic of Cancer
Pescadores
Canton
Formosa (Taiwan) (Jap. 1895)
Hong Kong (Br. 1841)
Macao (Port. 1887)
Kwangchow (Fr. 1898-9-1922)
Hainan
FR. INDO-China
SIAM
Bangkok
Luzon
Manila
Philippine Is (Spain 1521, Republic 1897, Ceded to U.S.A. by Spain, 1898-99)
Mindanao
Caroline Is (Span. to 1899, Germ. 1899-1914, Jap. Mand. 1919)
Yap
Palau Is (Pelew)
Truk Is
Ponape
Jaluit
Mariana or Ladrone Is (Span. to 1899, Germ. 1899-1914, Jap. Mandate 1919)
Saipan
Guam (U.S.A. 1898)
Wake I. (U.S.A.)
Ratak
Ralick
Marshall Is (Span. to 1885, Germ. 1885-1914, Jap. Mand. 1919)
Johnston I.
Palmyra (Br. 1897)
Washington I.
Fanning (Br. 1888)
Christmas (Br. 1888)
Gilbert Is (Br. 1892)
Baker I. (Br.)
Jarvis I. (Br.)
Equator
Galapagos Is (to Ec.)
Malden (Br. 1866)
Starbuck (Br. 1866)
Phoenix Is. (Br. 1889)
Ellice Is (Br. 1892)
Union (Tokelau) Is (Br. 1889, N.Z. 1925)
Penrhyn I.
Manihiki (Br. 1888)
Marquesas Is (Fr. 1842)
Samoa, N.Z. Mand. 1920
Germ. 1899, Br. 1914
Society Is (Fr. 1880)
Tahiti (1842)
Paumotu (Low) Archo (Fr. 1881)
Cook Is (Br. 1888)
Tutuaila (Austral) Is (Fr. 1881)
Gambier Is (Fr. 1881)
Tropic of Capricorn
Pitcairn I. (Br. 1902)
Ducie I. (Br.)
Easter I.
Rapa I. (Fr.)
Callao
PERU
Lima
Arica
Valparaiso
Santiago
CHILE
ARGENTINA
Falkland Is (Br.)
Str. of Magellan
C. Horn
Buenos Aires
Rio de Janeiro
Pernambuco
Dakar
Cape Verde Is (Port.)
Azores (Port.)
Madeira (Port.)
Canary Is (Sp.)
Tripoli
Algiers
Tunis
Gibraltar (Br.)
Malta (Br.)
Alexandria
Suez Canal
Port Said
Aden
Socotra (Brit.)
Muscat
Hormuz
Persia
Afghanistan
Baluchistan
Kashmir
Kabul
Peshawar
Khiva
Bokhara
Samarkand
Tashkent
Turkestan
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Constantinople
Smyrna
Mecca
Medina
Jerusalem
Beirut
Damascus
Baghdad
Mesopotamia
Persian Gulf
Muscat
Oman
Arabia
Red Sea
Abyssinia
Somaliland (Brit.)
Italian Somaliland
Eritrea (Italy)
Sudan
Egypt
Libya
Italy
Sicily
Sardinia
Corsica
Spain
Portugal
Morocco
Algeria
Tunisia
Mexico
U.S.A.
San Francisco
Los Angeles
S. Diego
New Orleans
Mazatlan
Br. Honduras
Hon.
Nic.
Sal.
C.R.
Panama (Rep. 1903)
Canal opened 1914
Col.
Ec.
Guayaquil
Quito
Peru
Lima
Callao
Arica
Valparaiso
Santiago
Chile
Argentina







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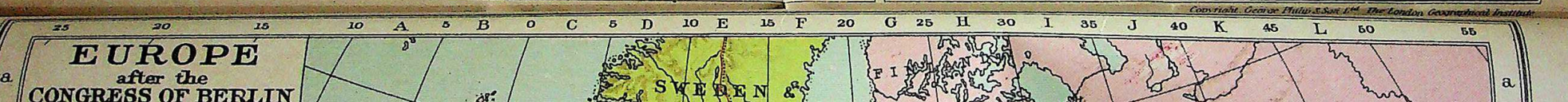

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BALKAN PENINSULA
1800-1914
Scale 1:6,000,000 (100 miles=1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100
Ottoman boundary in 1800.
Ottoman boundary in 1900.
Boundaries of dependent or independent states created by Treaties 1815-1881.
Bulgarian Boundary proposed by T. of San Stefano 1878, amended by Treaty of Berlin 1878
Boundaries of the Balkan States as modified by the Treaties of London and Bucharest 1913 and by subsequent agreements.
a.
b.
THE SLAVONIC and BULGARIAN POWERS in the BALKAN PENINSULA
Scale 1:20000000
Bulgarian power in XIV C before Turkish Invasion; at its widest extent (XIX C.)
Kof Servia in 1350 under Stephen Dushan
Extent of S.W. Slavonic or Servian Settlements in VIII C. (Slavs, Serbs, Croats, Crovats)
SERVIA
BULGARIA
BOSNIA
HERZEGOVINA
MONTENEGRO
RUMANIA
MOLDAVIA
WALLACHIA
TRANSYLVANIA
BESSARABIA
BUKOVINA
JEDISAN
DOBRUDJA
EASTERN RUMELIA
THRACE
MACEDONIA
ALBANIA
GREECE
CRETE
(autonomous 1898)
On scale of General Map
Highlands over 3000 Feet
from 1200 to 3000
Uplands 600 " 1200
Lowlands 0 " 600
Cyclades
Sporades
Æ G E A N
S E A
A D R I A T I C
I O N I A N
B L A C K
Carpathian Mts
Transylvanian Alps
Balkan Mts
Pindus Mts
Rhodope Mts
Olympus
Mt. Athos 6350
Mt. Ida
Danube
Save
Drave
Maros
Aluta
Prut
Dniester
Bosporus
Dardanelles
Sea of Marmara
Constantinople
Adrianople
Philippopolis
Sofia
Bucharest
Belgrade
Salonica
Smyrna
Athens
Corfu
Cephalonia
Zacynthos
Leucas
Lemnos
Mitylene
Chios
Samos
Rhodes
Andros
Negroponte
Scyros
Thasos
Imbros
Tenedos
Gallipoli
Lampsacus
Brussa
Scutari
S. Stefano
Midia
Kirk Kilisse
Varna
Shumla
Rasgrad
Rustchuk
Nicopolis
Plevna
Widin
Orsova
Mehadia
Semlin
Passarowitz
Semendria
Kragujevatz
Ouitsa
Sarajevo
Travnik
Banyaluka
Brod
Mostar
Durazzo
Scutari
Prizrend
Uskub (Skopje)
Monastir (Bitolia)
Ochrida
Prespa L.
Janina
Arta
Prevesa
Patras
Missolonghi
Corinth
Argostolion
Zante
Suda
Candia
Canea
Cerigo
C. Malia
C. Matapan
Navarino
Modon
Koron
Malvasia
Milos
Santorin
Amorgos
Naxos
Paros
Seriphos
Hydra
Spezzia
Cythnos
Tinos
Psara
Scyros
Lemnos
Kustendil
Ristovatz
Vranja
Kumanovo
Kortchana
Strumnitza
Demir Hissar
Serres
Drama
Kavalla
Dedeagach
Enos
Gallipoli
Dimotika
Rodosto
Midia
Kirk Kilisse
Adrianople
Philippopolis
Tatar Bazardjik
Pazardjik
Tirnova
Lovcha
Plevna
Nicopolis
Sistova
Rasgrad
Shumla
Varna
Pravadi
Kamchik
Burgas
Karlovo
Kazanlik
Stara Zagora
Slimnitza
Tsaribrod
Nissa
Pirot
Kruchevatz
Semendria
Orsova
Mehadia
Widin
Citatea
Craiova
Turnu Severin
Hermannstadt
Red Tower Pass
Temesvar
Focsani
Galatz
Ismail
Braila
Tulcea
Kilia Mouth
Sulina
Hirsova
Kustenje
Oltenitza
Silistria
Kutchuk Kainardji
Bazarchik
Balchik
Kavarna
Mangalia
Kustendil
Ristovatz
Vranja
Kumanovo
Uskub (Skopje)
Kortchana
Strumnitza
Demir Hissar
Serres
Drama
Kavalla
Dedeagach
Enos
Gallipoli
Dimotika
Rodosto
Midia
Kirk Kilisse
Adrianople
Philippopolis
Tatar Bazardjik
Pazardjik
Tirnova
Lovcha
Plevna
Nicopolis
Sistova
Rasgrad
Shumla
Varna
Pravadi
Kamchik
Burgas
Karlovo
Kazanlik
Stara Zagora
Slimnitza
Tsaribrod
Nissa
Pirot
Kruchevatz
Semendria
Orsova
Mehadia
Widin
Citatea
Craiova
Turnu Severin
Hermannstadt
Red Tower Pass
Temesvar
Focsani
Galatz
Ismail
Braila
Tulcea
Kilia Mouth
Sulina
Hirsova
Kustenje
Oltenitza
Silistria
Kutchuk Kainardji
Bazarchik
Balchik
Kavarna
Mangalia
Akerman
Jassy
Kishenef
Bender
Balta
Czernowitz
Cetatea Alba
Kilia
Sulina
Kustenje
Trajan's Wall
Aidin
Manissa
Smyrna
Scala Nuova
Gulf of Corinth
Gulf of Lepanto
Gulf of Arta
Gulf of Volo
Gulf of Salonica
Gulf of Cassandra
Gulf of Orfano
Gulf of Contessa
Gulf of Kavalla
Gulf of Enos
Gulf of Saros
Gulf of Xeros
Gulf of Volo
Gulf of Lepanto
Gulf of Corinth
Gulf of Argos
Gulf of Nauplia
Gulf of Koron
Gulf of Navarino
Gulf of Modon
Gulf of Kalamata
Gulf of Sparta
Gulf of Marathonisi
Gulf of Kythera
Gulf of Antikythera
Gulf of Crete
Gulf of Suda
Gulf of Canea
Gulf of Candia
Gulf of Mirabello
Gulf of Sitia
Gulf of Palaikastro
Gulf of Ierapetra
Gulf of Messara
Gulf of Phaestos
Gulf of Gortyna
Gulf of Lasithi

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EGYPT AND THE NILE VALLEY
Sc. 1:6,000,000 (256 mls = 1in.)
English Miles
ABYSSINIA
Kodok (Fashoda)
Addis Abbaba
Railways
German
Italian
Spanish
Belgian
Turkish
Boundaries of British Mandates
Boundary of Belgian Mandate
Boundaries of Italian acquisitions
SOUTH AFRICA
Cape of Good Hope
Durban
East London
Cape Town
Highlands over 3000 Ft
Uplands 600-1200
Lowlands 0-600
Cape Colony in 1806.
East Frontier after Kaffir War 1819.
as fixed by Sir H. Smith 1847.
of Brit. Kaffraria Protectorate
(Annexed before 1865.)
Boundary of the Union State of the Cape of Good Hope.
SOUTH AFRICA
(PHYSICAL)
showing
GROWTH OF BRITISH POWER
during the XIX Century
Scale 1:2000000 (320 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
Cape Colony Dutch Fort at Cape Town 1652
British 1795, Dutch 1803, British 1806, formally ceded by Holland 1814.
Transvaal, settled 1837, independent 1851, annexed 1877, independent 1881.
Orange Free State, settled by Boer Trekkers 1836, under British Sovereignty 1848, independent 1854.
Basutoland, British Sovereignty 1868.
Land claimed by Transvaal.
" " Griquas & Orange Free St.
GERMAN SOUTH WEST AFRICA (1884)
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
BECHUANALAND (Protectorate 1885)
Kalahari Desert
BECHUANALAND (Annexed 1885)
KHAMA'S COUNTRY
MASHONA LAND
Charter 1890
MATABELE LAND
RHODESIA
TRANSVAAL
ORANGE RIVER COLONY
ORANGE FREE STATE
NATAL
ZULULAND
BASUTOLAND
GRIQUALAND WEST
GRIQUALAND EAST
Great Namaquas
Little Namaquas
BUSHMAN LAND
Hottentots
ORANGE RIVER SOVEREIGNTY
1848
SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC
1850
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
(CAPE COLONY)
TULBAGH
GRAAFF REINET
Great Karroo
SWELLENDAM
STELLENBOSCH
Cape Town
Table B.
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St Helena B.
C. St. Martin
C. Agulhas
Port Elizabeth
Algoa B.
East London
Durban
Pietermaritzburg
Kimberley
Bloemfontein
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Potchefstroom
Lydenburg
Zoutpansberg
Delagoa B.
Beira
Victoria Falls
Salisbury 1890
Umtali
Buluwayo
Matopo Hills
Chartered Company 1889
Protectorate 1888
Okavango Swamp
Chobe Source
Ngami (Discovered by Livingstone 1849)
Walvisch B. (1878)
Tropic of Capricorn
Orange
Molopo
Limpopo
Zambesi
Kunene
Cunene
Kuruman
Griquastown
Colesberg
Philippolis
Aliwal North
Wittenberg
Basutoland
Caledon
Swellendam
Worcester
George
Mossel B.
Plettenberg B.
Algoa Bay
Graaff Reinet
Cradock
Somerset E.
Grahamstown
Albany
Fingoes
Kaffraria
Alexandria
Stormberg
Drakensberg
Buffalo
Tugela
Natal
Zululand
Orange Free State
Transvaal
Swaziland
Tongaland
Delagoa Bay
Lourenco Marquez
Inhambane
Beira
Mozambique
Zambesi
Shire
Nyassa
Tanganyika
Victoria Nyanza
Lake Ngami
Lake Bangweolo
Lake Mweru
Lake Tanganyika
Lake Nyassa
Lake Victoria
Lake Rudolf
Lake Albert
Lake Albert Edward
Lake Kivu
Lake Tana
Lake Chad
Lake Tchad
Lake Fagibine
Lake Debo
Lake Faguibine
Lake Horo
Lake Kabara
Lake Niangay
Lake Kamango
Lake Kamangoun
Lake Kamangoun
Lake Kamangoun

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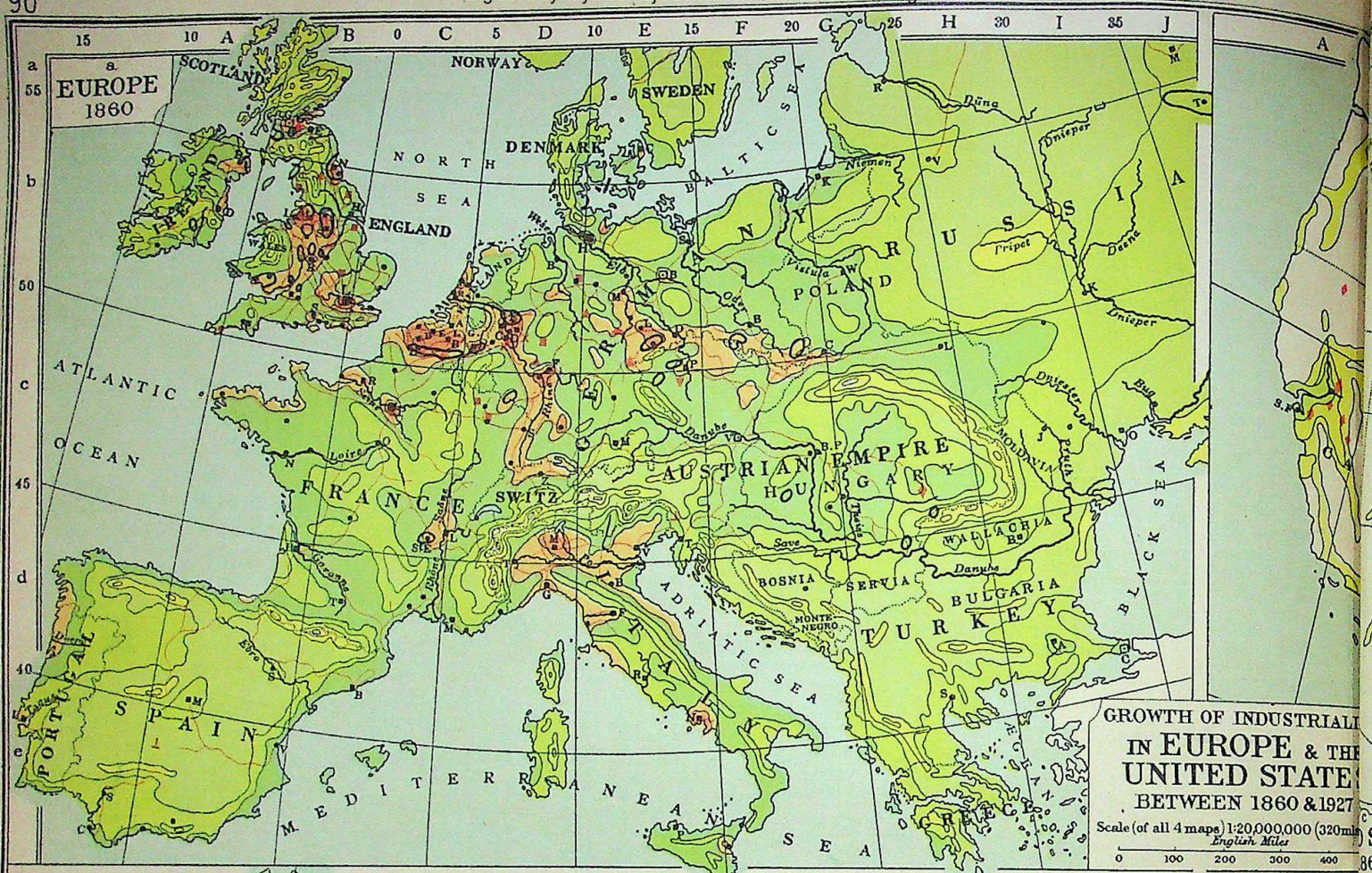

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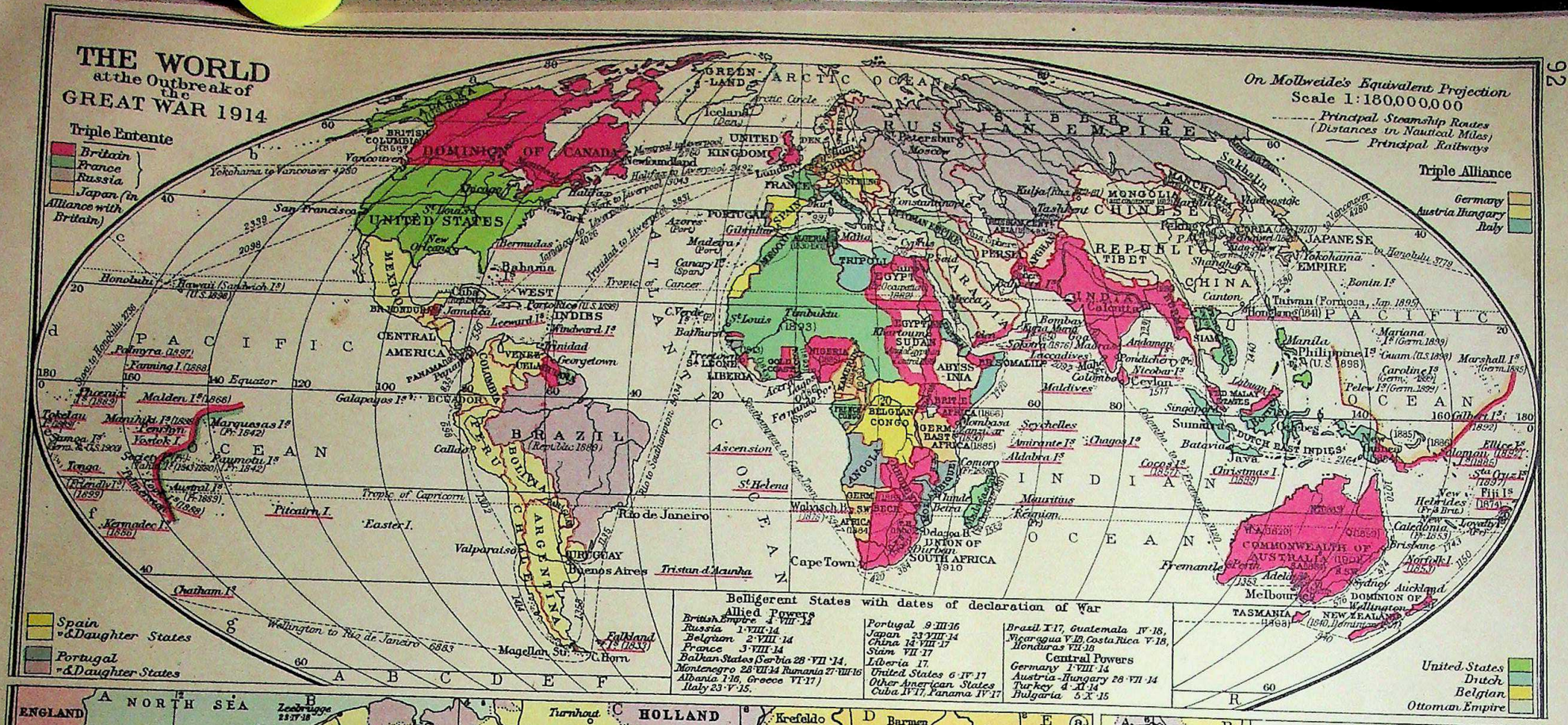

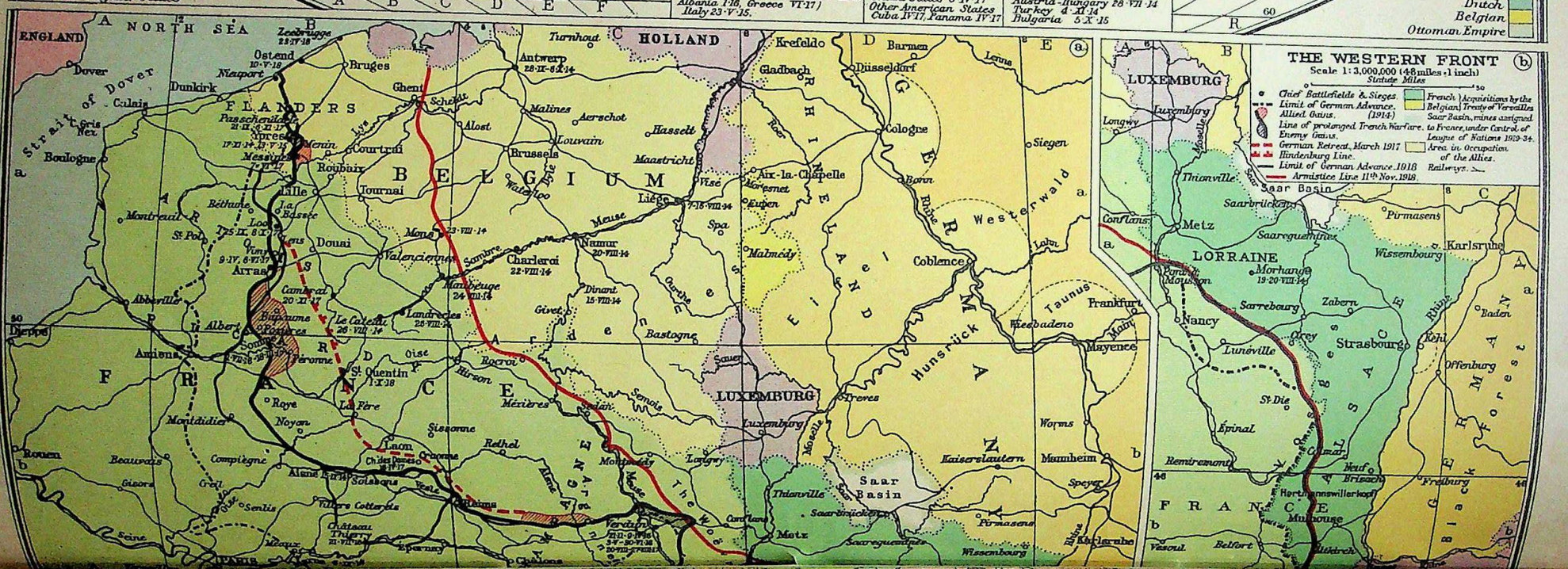

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INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES
Teutonic
High & Middle German
Low German
(Dutch)
(Flemish)
(Frisian)
English
Danish
Norwegian
Swedish
Scandinavian
Teutonic Settlements (in Non-Teutonic Countries)
Romanic or Latin
French
Walloon
Italian
Friulian
Rhaeto-Romanic, Ladin &
Catalan-Provençal
Spanish
Portuguese-Galician
Rumanian & Vlach
Balto-Slavonic (Baltic)
Lithuanian
Lettic
(Western Slavonic)
Polish & Kashube
Sorb or Wend
Czech
Slovak
Ruthenian & Little Russian
(Eastern Slavonic)
White Russian
Great Russian
(Southern Slavonic)
Bulgarian & Macedonian
Serbo-Croat
Slovene
Greek
Albanian
Celtic
Asian Groups
Armenian
Kurdish
Iranian
URAL-ALTAIC LANGUAGES
Finno-Ugrian
Magyar
Esthonian
Mordvinian
Finnish, Karelian and
Turko-Tartar & Mongol
Osmanli
Tartar
Kalmuck
CAUCASIAN LANGUAGES
BASQUE LANGUAGE
SEMITIC-HAMITIC LANGUAGES
Semitic
Hamitic
Shetland Is
Orkney Is
BRITISH ISLES
NORTH SEA
NORWAY
SWEDEN
DENMARK
Skagerrak
Kattegat
Christiania
Stockholm
Copenhagen
Hamburg
Bremen
Amsterdam
The Hague
BELGIUM
Brussels
Antwerp
Cologne
Berlin
Dresden
Leipzig
Frankfurt
Munich
Vienna
Prague
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
SWITZERLAND
Zurich
Geneva
Basle
Berne
FRANCE
PARIS
London
Liverpool
Manchester
Birmingham
Edinburgh
Glasgow
Dublin
Belfast
English Channel
Bay of Biscay
Marseille
Lyons
Nice
Toulouse
Bordeaux
Nantes
Le Havre
Rouen
Calais
Dover
Brighton
Portsmouth
Plymouth
Southampton
Bristol
Newcastle
Hull
Leeds
Sheffield
Aberdeen
Dundee
Edinburgh
Glasgow
Belfast
Dublin
Liverpool
Manchester
Birmingham
Leicester
Norwich
Cardiff
Milan
Venice
Genoa
Florence
Rome
Naples
Sardinia
Corsica
Barcelona
Valencia
Madrid
Seville
Granada
Malaga
Gibraltar (Br.)
Lisbon
Oporto
Cadiz
Cartagena
Alicante
Balearic Is
Majorca
Minorca
Ivica
Formentera
Sierra Morena
Sierra Nevada
Pyrenees
Ebro
Tagus
Guadalquivir
Guadiana
Douro
Mediterranean Sea
TYRRHENIAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
Ligurian Sea
G. of Lions
Algiers
Oran
Tunis
Bizerta
Constantine
Philippeville
Bona
Biskra
Tebessa
Kairwan
Susa
Sfax
Gabes
Tripoli
Malta (Br.)
Gozo
Lampedusa
Pantellaria
Trapani
Palermo
Messina
Catania
Syracuse
Sicily
Sardinia
Corsica
Elba
Capri
Ischia
Vesuvius
Etna
Stromboli
Lipari Is
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
TUNIS
Spanish Sphere
French Sphere
Plateau of the Shotts
Shott el Hodna
Shott el Jerid
Shott el Chergui
Atlas Mts
Riff Mts
Sahara
Fez
Rabat
Tangier
Melilla
Algiers
Oran
Constantine
Tunis
Bizerta
Kairwan
Tripoli
Gabes
Sfax
Malta
Gozo
Lampedusa
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Trapani
Palermo
Messina
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Sicily
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Tripoli
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NOTE.—Each Map in the Atlas is divided into Squares by the lines of latitude and longitude, and these Squares are indicated by Reference Letters in the map borders. These Reference Letters, following each name in the Index, indicate the Square, and the succeeding Numeral indicates the Number of the Map in which each place will be found. Thus —"Aberdeen, Fb, 19," shows that Aberdeen will be found on Map 19, and in the Square indicated by the Reference Letters "Fb."

The following abbreviations have been used :—

Abr., Archbishopric; *Bp.*, Bishopric, *Bar.*, Bargraviate; *Cal.*, Caliphate; *Cty.*, County; *D.*, Duchy; *Dist.*, District; *Eccl.*, Ecclesiastical; *El.*, Electorate; *G.D.*, Grand Duchy, *K.*, Kingdom; *Land.*, Landgraviate; *M.*, March (Mark); *Marg.*, Margraviate; *Marq.*, Marquisate; *Pr.*, Principality; *Prov.*, Province; *Rep.*, Republic; *S.*, Seigneurie; *St.*, State; *Ter.*, Territory; *V.*, Viscounty.

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